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ABSTRACT

These papers, a portion of which are written in French, address a number of issues in education and development. The topics covered include pedagogical suggestions, self-direction in professional development, values assessment, building career transitions, career services, communicating in tomorrow's workplace, community-based training, personal accountability, effective strategies for training and retraining, leadership in career development, lifelong learning, men and work, the needs of minority and majority adolescents, relationships between personal characteristics and sexual harassment behaviors in male university professors, storytelling in career counseling, and socio-political ideology and career counseling. Most of the articles contain a short bibliography. (RJM)

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1996

Les actes du CONAT

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22nd National Consultation on Career Development (NATCON)

22e Colloque national touchant le développement de carrière (CONAT)

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NATCON Papers

1996

Les actes du CONAT

22nd National Consultation on Career Development (NATCON)

22e Colloque national touchant le développement de carrière (CONAT)

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* Les textes sont rédigés au masculin dans le seul but de les alléger.

** These projects described in these papers are part of the initiatives undertaken by or sponsored through the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation (CGCF). The CGCF is a charitable foundation committed to promoting quality and innovation in career development. Through partnerships with Human Resources Development Canada, Industry Canada, various provincial government departments, universities, colleges, and private businesses, it has been providing leadership in developing state-of-the-art methods of career counselling, career education, and counsellor training since 1989.

Ces textes portent sur des projets qui font partie des initiatives entreprises ou parrainées par la Fondation canadienne d'orientation et de consultation (FCOC). La Fondation est un organisme philantropique dédié à la promotion de la qualité et de l'innovation dans le développement de carrière. En collaboration avec Développement des ressources humaines Canada, Industrie Canada, nombres de ministères provinciaux, d'universités, de collèges et d'entreprises privées, la Fondation a favorisé le développement de méthodes perfectionnées de consultation de carrières, d'éducation sur les carrières et de formation en consultation depuis 1989.

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Foreword

Avertissement

Statements contained in the *NATCON Papers 1996 Les actes du CONAT* are the personal views of the authors. They bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, figures, and permission from copyright holders.

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Preface

Préface

Once again we are most fortunate in the quality of the papers submitted to NATCON Papers 1996 Les actes du CONAT, *which represent the diversity and richness of the presentations made at the National Consultation on Career Development (NATCON). Through the papers, the essence of the presentations is captured and shared with delegates, as well as colleagues who were unable to attend. Communicating about our experiences, research, developments, and discoveries on national and international levels is critical to enhancing the work we do.*

NATCON Papers 1996 Les actes du CONAT *is distributed to all delegates who attended NATCON 1996, and will join previous volumes on the shelves of career and employment counsellors across the country, as well as the National Library of Canada.*

NATCON is co-sponsored by The Counselling Foundation of Canada, Human Resources Development Canada, and the Career Centre of the University of Toronto. In addition to the provision of funding for the consultation, The Counselling Foundation of Canada also generously supports the publication of this journal.

I would like to take this opportunity on your behalf to thank my University of Toronto colleagues Lou Hawkes, Hélène Suzin, and Angela Sidoriak. Their solid administrative and organizational work, coupled with an excellent program, make NATCON one the finest career-development conferences in the world.

NATCON 1997 will be here before we know it and we look forward to your joining us in Ottawa, 20–22 January 1997. When you receive your information in the fall, please share it with your colleagues. Encourage them to join you at NATCON 1997 for what promises to be an excellent conference.

Marilyn Van Norman
Director of Counselling, Information, and Career Services
University of Toronto

En français au verso.

Encore une fois, nous avons été choyés par la qualité des textes soumis en vue de la publication de NATCON Papers 1996 Les actes du CONAT. *Ces textes représentent la diversité et l'étendue des sujets qui sont présentés à l'occasion du Colloque national touchant le développement de carrière (CONAT) et permettent de communiquer, tant aux participants qu'à nos collègues qui n'ont pu y assister, l'essentiel des présentations qui ont eu lieu. Il est en effet primordial pour notre travail de faire part de nos expériences, recherches, progrès et découvertes sur les plans national et international afin d'aller toujours de l'avant.*

Le livre NATCON Papers 1996 Les actes du CONAT *est distribué à tous les participants du CONAT 1996. Il se retrouvera avec les autres volumes publiés précédemment sur les rayons des bibliothèques des conseillers en orientation professionnelle et en emploi des quatre coins du pays. Il sera également déposé à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada.*

Le CONAT est parrainé conjointement par The Counselling Foundation of Canada, Développement des ressources humaines Canada et le Career Centre de la University of Toronto. En plus d'accorder des fonds pour l'organisation du colloque, The Counselling Foundation of Canada offre son généreux soutien financier pour la publication du présent ouvrage.

J'aimerais profiter de cette occasion pour remercier, en votre nom, mes collègues Lou Hawkes, Hélène Suzin et Angela Sidoriak de la University of Toronto. Grâce à leur solide travail d'administration et d'organisation ainsi qu'à l'excellente qualité du programme présenté, le CONAT est devenu l'un des colloques en développement de carrière les plus renommés au monde.

Le CONAT 1997 arrive déjà à grands pas et promet d'être des plus intéressants. Nous espérons que vous serez des nôtres du 20 au 22 janvier 1997, à Ottawa. Vous recevrez le programme provisoire du colloque au mois de septembre. Faites-en part à vos collègues et invitez-les à se joindre à vous.

Marilyn Van Norman
Directrice des services en counselling, information et
développement de carrière
University of Toronto

Accelerated learning techniques and self-directed learning

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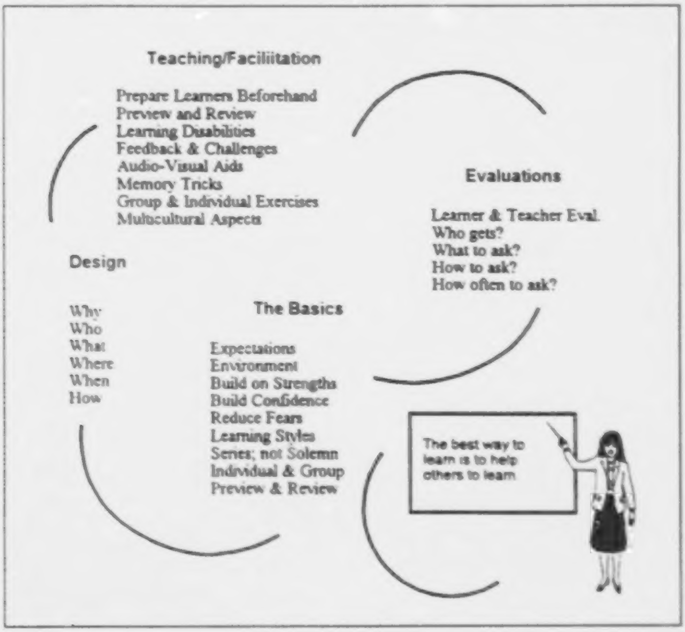
PSD Consultants
Scarborough, Ontario, Canada

Introduction

Accelerated learning is about helping people to learn in a non-competitive, relaxed, yet energized learning environment. Accelerated learning techniques help learners acquire more knowledge and skills in less time than traditional learning methods. The techniques are worthless, however, if they are not used within the philosophic framework of adult education and the childlike perspective that learning can—and should—be enjoyable.

The basics

Teachers must constantly review and apply the basics of good teaching. Both the beginner and the experienced teacher can benefit from applying the basics to their programs. The basics are shown in the following graphic.


Teaching/Faciliitation
Prepare Learners Beforehand
Preview and Review
Learning Disabilities
Feedback & Challenges
Audio-Visual Aids
Memory Tricks
Group & Individual Exercises
Multicultural Aspects
Evaluations
Learner & Teacher Eval.
Who gets?
What to ask?
How to ask?
How often to ask?
Design
Why
Who
What
Where
When
How
The Basics
Expectations
Environment
Build on Strengths
Build Confidence
Reduce Fears
Learning Styles
Series; not Solemn
Individual & Group
Preview & Review
The best way to learn is to help others to learn

- Provide a natural, comfortable, safe, and colourful learning environment.
- Help learners build on their strengths and identify their own learning needs.
- Build people's confidence rather than trivialize or threaten their knowledge and skills.
- Help people to reduce their fears, stresses, and learning barriers. Competitive learning is useful. Confrontational learning is destructive.

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- Accommodate different learning styles, speeds, and needs by providing information in a variety of ways: visually, verbally, and through hands-on exercises, or demonstrations.
- Learning may take serious effort, but it does not have to be solemn. People can have fun, enjoy their learning, and still develop their knowledge and skills seriously. In fact, when people enjoy their learning they learn more, faster, and remember it longer.
- Encourage group learning as well as individual learning. It is often best to give people time to work on an exercise by themselves first. Then follow up with a group exercise or activity.
- Tell people at the beginning what they are expected to learn, what they can expect from you, how the material will be presented, how they will be evaluated, how you will be evaluated, and what educational principles you use in your teaching.
- Summarize and review the material with people. People remember most what happens at the beginning and at the end of a learning experience. This last step is avoided most often by teachers because learners are usually keen to leave the program quickly when it is near finishing time. There are creative ways to summarize materials described later in this material that may encourage you to include a summary or review at the end of a section of learning or at the end of the program.

Other considerations

There are other elements to learning that affect how and what a person learns.

- Physical differences in hearing, seeing, tasting, smelling, and feeling as well as physical abilities and disabilities
- Social differences in culture, religion (cultural and religious expectations of learning), experiences, work, and types of enjoyment
- Gender differences
- Psychological differences in beliefs, goals, personal development, intelligence, and self-awareness
- Economic differences between people may affect formal versus informal learning choices
- Education differences in levels of schooling completed

All of these elements—physical, social, psychological, economic, and educational—influence how one sees the world and what one decides to learn in that world. These elements are not limitations to learning.

Accelerated learning techniques

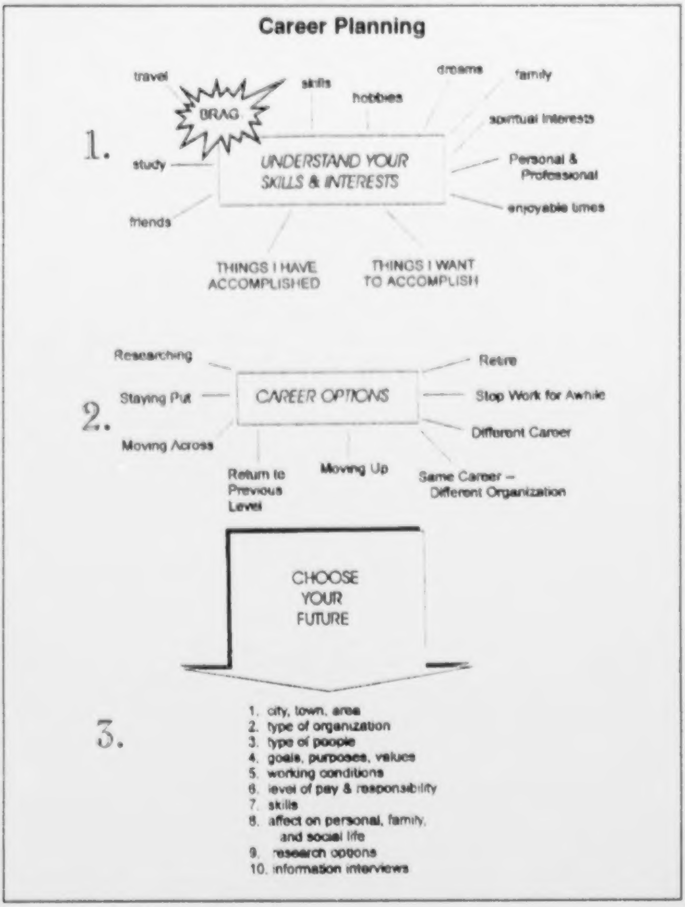
You do not have to be an expert in all teaching techniques to be an effective teacher. You need to use several different methods in each session to make sure that participants who learn differently (using different seeing, hearing, or doing methods) have an opportunity to use their preferred learning style some of the time.

OVERHEADS AND CHALK BOARD. Overheads and notes on a chalk board or flip chart are ways to make sure that the information you are giving people is presented in a logical and memorable way.

VIDEOTAPE. Sometimes videotaping a group during an exercise helps participants identify their own body language. It also helps them see their strengths as communicators and areas where they want to improve their skills. Have them concentrate first on what they do well, and then have them pick one or two things they would like to do differently.

SONGS AND MUSIC. Use a familiar song and rewrite the words to highlight information you would like people to remember. Either perform the song by yourself (if the group is shy) or get people to sing along with you.

OTHER MEMORY TRICKS. You can also use other memory tricks to help people remember information in an enjoyable way. For example, memory maps summarize information in a visual way.


Career Planning
1.
travel
BRAG
skills
hobbies
dreams
family
spiritual interests
study
UNDERSTAND YOUR SKILLS & INTERESTS
Personal & Professional
enjoyable times
friends
THINGS I HAVE ACCOMPLISHED
THINGS I WANT TO ACCOMPLISH
2.
Researching
Staying Put
Moving Across
CAREER OPTIONS
Retire
Stop Work for Awhile
Different Career
Return to Previous Level
Moving Up
Same Career – Different Organization
CHOOSE YOUR FUTURE
3.
1. city, town, area
2. type of organization
3. type of people
4. goals, purposes, values
5. working conditions
6. level of pay & responsibility
7. skills
8. affect on personal, family, and social life
9. research options
10. information interviews

VISUALIZATION. Visualizations are like daydreams except that someone is speaking to you while you relax. They are a good way to allow people to think, or feel emotions, quietly, about a specific idea. They are used successfully by athletes to prepare for competitions, by patients to help them deal more effectively with their illness or pain management, and by actors and public speakers to prepare for their performances. They are used in stress-reduction techniques and in learning exercises to help children and adults learn math, second languages, or just about any other topic.

MUSICAL PREVIEWS/REVIEWS. Using quiet music (classical, New Age, sounds of nature) in the background, you can show overheads, slides, and information on flip charts or chalk boards to the participants, without saying a word. Participants are just expected to read the material in a relaxed environment. You can use this technique to preview material for a program or to review materials that learners have already seen during the program.

FISHBOWL. When an activity calls for only 12–20 people, but you have many more than that, present the activity to the first few rows of participants and ask the others to move in closer to observe the groups' activities. Give the observing audience specific things to look for, and debrief both groups.

INDIVIDUALS TEACH EACH OTHER. Having people tutor each other helps them understand the material better themselves. Those who already know the material will reinforce their knowledge and skill by helping others learn it.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING. Begin with an exercise that involves people working together on a specific problem or skill. Once they have finished their exercise, one or more people from each group explain what happens to the rest of the group. This method allows groups to learn from each other, rather than just on their own or from the teacher.

BRAINSTORM. Start with groups coming up with as many ideas as possible to solve a specific question or problem. People should generate at least 30–50 alternatives. They must not judge each other's answers or ideas (either good or bad). Requiring a large number of alternatives forces them to go beyond the standard 5–10 alternatives that most people come up with. Their creativity is encouraged by this method. All ideas should be written down without comment, using the exact words of the person who gave the idea. On a different day have the groups classify, evaluate, modify, compare, and rank their ideas.

SOCRATIC TECHNIQUE. Use questions to encourage participants to form and test an idea or theory, make predictions about what would happen if a certain idea was tried, and have them draw conclusions. Comparing their conclusions with other groups will help them identify how similar ideas and theories can result in different, yet equally effective, conclusions.

ROLE-PLAYS. Role-playing is just one form of acting out a situation. If participants are working out how best to be more assertive, they might act out a situation in which a worker tries to resolve a problem with a supervisor. Once the role-play is over, individuals and groups summarize the major ideas and conclusions. Give participants a time limit of two or three mintes. They will often go beyond that limit but giving them a shorter time makes the role-play less intimidating for some of them.

DEMONSTRATIONS. A teacher can use a computer screen, or model or demonstrate a procedure to get audience input and reactions. Getting participants to do specific demonstrations or projects increases their learning and their long-term memory of that specific knowledge or skill you are highlighting.

CHAIN-GANG PROCEDURES. Present different steps of a procedure to different subgroups and have them form teams to master the complete procedure.

PRESS CONFERENCE. Divide the group into teams and have each team prepare a list of questions to quiz you (or a panel of experts). While one team conducts the interview, ask the other teams to prepare a summary of your responses.

GAMES. Create a new board game or physical activity game (such as charades) to highlight specific information or ideas, like management skills. You could also divide learners into teams and have them quiz each other.

WRITE OR PERFORM A PLAY OR FILM. Have a group write a play or film script that teaches the audience something in a dramatic or comical way.

PHYSICAL ACTIVITY. Have statements up on different walls within a room. Have participants move to the statement that they most agree with. Change the statements and have people move around again. This is a more visual way of demonstrating how people think on different topics or issues.

TAKING A RISK. Many of the activities presented here go beyond the typical way that people have learned in the past. Some of the activities will be highly successful while others may not meet the learning needs of a particular group at all. There may be great excitement about your teaching methods, or real resistance.

Experienced teachers take risks to help their learners acquire knowledge and skills in more memorable and enjoyable ways. When their methods are successful, they share their own enthusiasm and excitement with the learners. When their new method does not work, they explain their reasons for trying, listen carefully to why the participants did not like it, and move on to an alternative that is more successful.

When people disagree with your teaching method, you both learn. Participants learn about different teaching methods and which methods work best for them. You learn to see your teaching methods through the eyes of different learners to make you an even better teacher. Everyone wins. Even if you make a mistake in your choice of words (you may sound racist or sexist to someone else) allow them the pleasure of teaching you. People love to teach. If you genuinely want to help them, you will show your own interest in learning from them.

Most important, even when learners dislike a particular method, their dislike of it helps them remember the particular knowledge and skills you were trying to teach. Although you prefer people to learn by enjoying a particular teaching tool, you also help them when they are a bit uncomfortable with a new teaching tool. For example, most people do not like to be videotaped, but their discomfort helps them remember the knowledge and skills for a long time. You do not purposely try to make someone uncomfortable, but when it happens it is still a valuable learning tool.

The important thing to ask yourself as a teacher is, Would I do it? If you would not, figure out why. Do not ask learners to take bigger risks than you do. Remember that some things you see as normal learning methods may feel risky to people trying something new. We all learn best when we are brought to our edge of comfort—when we have to ask ourselves difficult questions and find answers. Do not choose that edge of comfort for your learners. Allow them to choose for themselves what is safe and what is a risk. Always give people an opportunity not to participate in a specific activity, and you will find that few people will take your offer. If you do not give them that opportunity, however, people will naturally rebel against your authority.

Learning contracts

A learning contract is a contract made between you and another person or for you alone. The contract helps you organize a learning project that you are going to be in charge of from start to finish. You decide, sometimes with a professor's consent or advice, what you want to learn, how you will learn, and more. The contract details:

- what you want to learn,
- how you are going to learn it,
- when you want to finish the learning,
- how you will know you have learned enough,
- how you will prove that you have learned something,
- what unexpected things you learned as a result of your contract.

You might make a contract with a colleague, trainer, fellow learner, family member or friend, or fill one out just to help clarify for yourself some specific learning project you are involved in.

The tricky part of a learning contract is describing what you want to learn. It must be written in a very concise and clear way. It is not enough to say you want to learn to understand what happened to people during the 1989 recession. You need to write what people in particular you want to study, and what specific results you will look at (or else the topic is much too big). Another project may be learning to be more assertive, but that, again, is too broad a learning project. To break the project down into something manageable, you might write that you want to be more assertive when dealing with professors or tutorial leaders.

Once you have a specific learning objective, you need to describe what kinds of resources you will use. These can include:

- experts (people love to give free advice or information);
- books, magazines, journals, newspapers, diaries, your own notebooks;
- videos, records, audio cassettes, film strips, slide shows, television, radio;
- friends, colleagues, family members;
- researchers;
- computer searches, indexes, abstracts;
- the public librarian.

Setting a target date is helpful to force you to coordinate this project with your other studying, your family, your social time, your relaxation time, and, perhaps, your work. You should break down your learning project so that you can succeed in a relatively short time (less than six months). Otherwise you may tend to procrastinate so much that you never accomplish what you want.

How will you know if you have learned enough? Perhaps you want to learn a skill. When you are able to do the skill or teach it to someone else, you will probably have learned enough. One of the best ways to know how much you have learned is to ask yourself how comfortable you are with the knowledge or skill.

If you need to prove to someone else that you have acquired the knowledge or skill, you can use various methods to prove it:

- write a report;
- demonstre the skill;
- have someone evaluate your knowledge or skill;
- ask friends, family, or other students to ask you questions or observe you while you learn;
- keep a diary or journal on how you are learning;
- produce a finished product or service when you are ready—produce a video, give a course, take pictures, or present the information or skills;
- teach someone else and have this person evaluate your knowledge and/or skill;
- present a degree, certificate, or course completion form.

Most learning projects result in unexpected learning. You should record some of that unexpected learning as an extra reward for your efforts.

Important Note

Use the learning contract to narrow your learning focus to a level of knowledge or skill that you feel comfortable doing and accomplishing within a relatively short amount of time. Spending some time seriously thinking about what you want to learn can save you many frustrating hours of wasting your learning time!

Blank Learning Contract

1 I want to learn (specific learning objectives versus what you want to do): ____________________

2 I will learn this by (specific ways you will learn, e.g. speaking with experts, reading, doing an activity): ____________________

3 I will finish this learning by (date): ____________________

4 I will know I have learned enough when (e.g. when you are able to repeat or teach a skill, or when you are satisfied with your knowledge): ____________________

5 I will prove that I have learned something by (e.g. writing a report, getting someone to evaluate your learning, etc.): ____________________

6 I will record any extra learning I do as a result of this contract. ____________________

Once you have written a draft of your contract, you may find it helpful to have a friend, other student, or professor/instructor to review it for you. Use the following questions to ask yourself if your contract is complete:

- Are the learning objectives clear, concise, understandable, and realistic?
- Do they describe what you want to learn (as opposed to what you think you will do)?
- Is there any thing else you want to learn that is more important to you?
- Is your description of how you are going to learn reasonable and realistic?
- Are there other resources (people, books, articles, videos, other reports) that would be useful?
- Does the evidence you will have seem relevant to the specific things you want to learn?
- Is there other evidence you might want to have?
- Is your method of proving the usefulness of your evidence clear, relevant, and convincing?
- Are there others ways to prove the usefulness of the evidence?

As a result of answering these questions and getting suggestions from others, you might decide to change your learning plan. Remember that the contract is a guide to your learning. If you need to change it as you go along, do so. If you need to get changes approved by a supervisor, then make the changes as early as you can in your learning process to avoid wasting your time.

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11

Accepting responsibility for professional development

Louise Blazik
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Toronto, Ontario, Canada

What is professional development?

Professional means "specialist or expert" and *development* means "progressing, moving forward, or advancement" (extracted from the thesaurus in WordPerfect). Professional development suggests the progressive movement toward fine-tuning business skills. Training is professional development.

Why is professional development necessary?

Workers in today's society must be current on new technology and adaptable to new ways of doing things. The plan is to increase efficiency and competitiveness while reducing costs and maintaining an exceptional level of service—quite a challenge. My research shows that most individuals are very aware that technology development is escalating and that the job market is becoming more global and fiercely competitive. We are entering an extremely stressful era.

Progressively minded people seem to have a profound need to feel that they are moving forward in their life and career, or at the very least, in keeping up with others. Finding the time and money, and identifying the proper training programs to keep current, is proving to be a challenge.

Baby Boomers (title given to those born between 1945 and 1964) are now either approaching their 50th birthday or have recently celebrated it. Many have managed to get through much of their working life, at least up to the early '90s, by doing their duties manually. The thought of now having to live, work, and compete in the high-tech era of the '90s is proving to be an intimidating and stressful time for many. We are in a world that is forging ahead so quickly that we often feel like passengers on an express train that is out of control.

To meet the needs and demands of both the Canadian and global business community, workers must have a current predetermined set of essential skills, a positive and flexible attitude, good work ethic, and right behaviour.

These essential components must be in place and at levels that are exceptional, not simply adequate. One must be marketable and employable as the world plunges into the 21st century.

Who is responsible for professional development?

I have identified four key areas where one acquires knowledge and skills throughout life.

1. Family life

Parents and other adult family members have a moral responsibility to guide, develop, and prepare their children for the adult world, and to act as a positive role model. There will always be parents who shed their responsibility and leave the upbringing of their children to society. This allows those same parents to blame and hold society responsible if the children have difficulty living in the world or lack the basic skills to function successfully. Many families live with tremendous stress due to high unemployment and an uncertain future. Family members often suffer from severe depression as a direct result of these factors.

What can parents teach their children at home that will prepare them for adulthood and their career?

A Communication skills
Allowing children to speak uninterrupted for at least five minutes, once a day, helps to develop their speaking skills and self-confidence. Listening to them actively for five minutes at a time is even more valuable.

B Decision making
Encouraging and allowing children to make choices and simple decisions will develop their sense of responsibility, confidence, and decision-making skills. This can start with something simple, such as choosing the vegetable or dessert to have at a family dinner.

C Organizational skills
Assign chores, then have the child make a list of things to do by a specified date and time, and check it off when completed. Post the list on the fridge. This teaches organizational skills, follow up, and meeting deadlines and commitments.

Several employers identified these ABC's as major considerations when interviewing individuals for a job.

2. School system

On average, Canadian students spend eight years in elementary and five in high school. To prepare young people for the job market, these 13 years of education and training need to meet the expectations of employers. Most business people will agree that it is far more important for potential employees to write good business letters than to recite two lines of Shakespeare.

Spelling, grammar, letter writing, practical business math, computer training, speaking and listening skills, and languages are essential core subjects, and need to be in the curriculum for 10 of the 13 years. Essential subjects such as spelling and grammar are often dropped by Grade 3 or 4. As a result, we have produced many adults who spell and write at Grade 3 and 4 levels.

Class assignments such as writing instructions for an upcoming project or meeting, writing letters dealing with conflict, and preparing résumés, teach students to focus on important issues and to plan and organize and think projects through.

Everyone associated with grooming children for adulthood must share in teaching necessary soft life-skills such as building self-confidence, right attitude and learning effective communication. These are essential in business.

Summary

Referring to professional development courses instead of school subjects may cause students to think and feel more like an adult preparing for the business world. Representatives from both the private and public business sector need to be involved in determining core curriculum. Students must be taught good basic business and soft life-skills throughout their school years to be employable. A course objective must be prepared for each course, and teachers must demonstrate the relevance and application of the course content to the business world.

3. Employers

Employers tend to hire those with the required job skills and an ability to be adaptable, and have good interpersonal skills. Contract positions have become popular with employers for this very reason.

Why do many small businesses resist paying for professional development courses for employees?

Labour laws favour employees. Employers have obligations but few rights or no rights at all, and employees have rights and few if any obligations. For example, if an employer finds it necessary to release an employee, advance notice or payment in lieu of and possibly severance pay must be paid. Employees, on the other hand, can go out for lunch on Friday and simply not return to work.

The perception among owners of many small businesses is that employees lack commitment and a sense of responsibility. This ultimately causes disruption in the workplace and loss in business. This was one of the main reasons given by employers for providing little or no company-paid training.

Some small businesses have found that employees leave shortly after receiving company-paid training, for any number of reasons. This is a little less evident now as people stay in their job whether they like it or not, because of the current limited job opportunities. Clearly, other motivating factors need to be in place for employers to secure their employees, such as opportunity for advancement and ongoing paid training programs.

Large progressive companies tend to have ongoing training programs for employees. This way, employees are current on new systems and new ways of doing things, that ultimately increase productivity, efficiency, and customer service. Ongoing training prepares employees for promotion, thus adding to their personal need for growth and development.

Summary

Labour laws in the '90s must meet the needs of both employers and employees. A balance of commitment and mutual respect is essential. Training and professional-development courses are necessary to ensure that employees have current job skills. This is essential to the growth and success of a business. Employees must work closely with their employers to instill confidence and commitment and to develop as a team for mutual benefit. Staff training is part of the cost of doing business. Ultimately, training costs need to be factored into the price of a product or service.

Small business in the future will continue to rely on the support of public funding to upgrade the skills of employees. Most small businesses are keeping consumer prices as low as possible to remain competitive. There simply isn't the money for employers to pay the full cost of training. This must be a shared expense.

4. Government

The '90s are proving to be an era in which middle-class taxpayers are demanding to know how tax dollars are being spent. Government is being held accountable for public spending. Millions of tax dollars are spent annually in training grants and subsides. One would expect that recipients would now have the necessary skills to gain employment. This does not seem to be the case, since unemployment is still very high and many businesses indicate that they cannot find qualified labour. The effectiveness and the results of these programs is unclear. The public needs to know the actual employment success rate of those employed in the field that they trained for. Taxpayers are looking for a return on their investment.

The Canadian government promotes Canadian business through trade missions. More than ever, small business needs training funds to ensure that the Canadian labour force is prepared to compete in the world market. Companies planning to establish joint ventures overseas may find it necessary to have long-term employees with exceptional technical and soft life-skills in place. It is important to establish personal relationships between people in distant business situations, because people tend to feel more secure dealing with a familiar person.

The role of organized labour unions

Over the last several years, some unions have been successful in obtaining public funding to retrain their members. Actual training costs, however, are generally paid for by taxpayers at large, through publicly funded programs.

The problem now is that the well is dry and taxpayers are screaming, "Enough is enough." Alternate resources for membership training may need to be explored, since public funding is quickly disappearing. Government, the business community, and unions must work together to prepare a global job-needs analysis to lead us into the 21st century.

What are the benefits of professional development?

New technology provides opportunity for system designs to reduce operating expenses, increase efficiency, and lower costs. This enables business to be more competitive. For individuals, it means higher morale, a sense of pride in being a part of progress, and opportunity for employment. Companies with highly skilled employees in advanced technology, adaptable to new ways of doing things, and having the right attitude toward change, increase their ability to be more profitable and competitive in the global market.The economy as a whole benefits, for the more we make, the more we spend.

Where and how to implement professional-development courses?

Generally, people prefer to train during normal working hours. Family and personal time is considered precious. Employees tend to prefer off-site training involving a complete change in environment. Many feel that courses conducted by staff trainers (using in-house training departments) are too close to management. Employees may not be totally at ease knowing that they may be monitored or analysed and reported to management. Short courses seem to be of greater value, since one tends to absorb and apply small amounts of new information at a time.

How to determine training needs?

A company must lead the way by preparing a strategic plan for future growth, along with a skills-needs analysis to ensure that the right people are in place to get the job done. A company has a vested interest in future growth, and employees do not always share the same vision, for an increase in business may be viewed as an increase in workload without additional pay.

Once company goals are in place, employees will need to be interviewed to discuss their suitability, in terms of their own business and personal goals and the amount of training that may be required for the job. Employers and employees must work together for mutual benefit. Career assessments are very useful tools and may ultimately save a company time and money. Training courses should incorporate technical and personal (soft life) skills, for example, right attitude toward change. Many people in transition feel overwhelmed, intimidated, and unconfident.

What skills are necessary to compete locally and abroad? Proficiency in the latest technology, effective communication skills, and customer service appear to be in high demand.

Summation

1. Currently, there is a gap between the knowledge and skills that the average students leave academic institutions with, and what they find is actually required and expected by employers in the workplace. This needs to be fixed.
2. People looking for work feel frustrated, suddenly realizing that much of what they have spent years learning in school is not applicable to many jobs. They simply do not feel confident or prepared to face the business world.
3. Employers often resent paying people to learn on the job. They feel that billions of tax dollars have already been spent over the years for public education. They expect workers to have basic skills, a healthy and positive attitude, and self-discipline. On-the-job training need only complement this foundation. Companies find it necessary to keep expenses to a minimum in order to remain competitive.
4. Everyone wants to enjoy the benefits of higher levels of education through professional development, but, few individuals and companies are willing to invest the necessary time and money to accomplish this. There is still the question of who should be paying for retraining.

The 21st century is the era in which all members of society will be expected to take charge of their own lives and accept personal responsibility and accountability. The decades of "free rides" may well be over. In the present global economic situation, taxpayers are not prepared to continue financing training and retraining without positive results. We must demonstrate that the recipients of these programs are now employable. As a result, it is essential that each person be encouraged and trained from an early age to accept personal responsibility for life.

Support groups are necessary to bring together people who are facing this competitive and demanding era. There are tremendous benefits in contributing to the support of others in similar situations. Some support groups communicate via the computer. However, for people new to the computer age, it may be more beneficial to maintain human contact by talking in person. Building a foundation of skills and knowledge is a lifelong process that begins in early childhood.

AESN employment-counsellor competency model

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In February 1994, the Aboriginal Employment Services Network (AESN) Steering Committee, comprising employment counsellors from within the Friendship Centre Movement, met in Ottawa to formulate a professional-development strategy that would assist employment counsellors to better serve their communities.

AESN employment counsellors face many challenges, the most apparent being the diversity of their client groups. A client group may comprise a variety of unskilled, semi-skilled, and highly skilled aboriginal people. Client work experiences can vary from having no documented work experience, to a series of non-sequential jobs in different occupational areas, to having had steady, stable experiences. The education range of these clients is just as diverse. Counsellors must also try to meet the needs of a highly mobile workforce, who move from area to area to match labour-market fluctuations. Clients may also have multi-level needs, ranging from life-skills training, to job-readiness training and skills-based training.

The Steering Committee agreed that a systematic approach to, training would provide a broad prescription for examining how counsellors work and create individualized professional-development opportunities to ease these challenges. This training approach has two objectives:

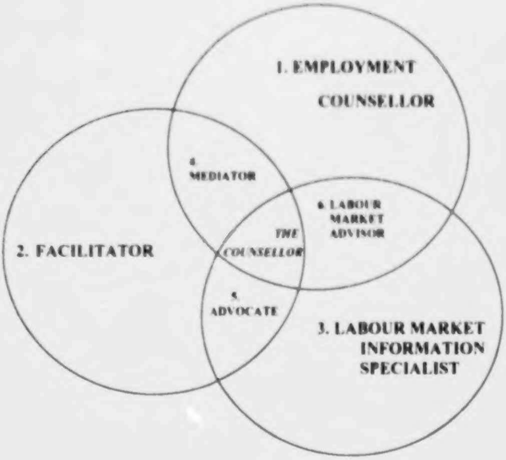
1 To ensure that employment counsellors possess a common body of knowledge, skills, and capabilities
2 To create performance standards for initial and ongoing professional development

The task of devising a systematic approach to meet the needs of the committee was given to the writers of this paper. Using the Interservice Procedures for Instructional Systems Development (IPISD) (Briggs, Morgan, and Branson 1981, 1986), we devised a plan of action that would attempt to respond to the following topics:
Analysis/assessment: Defining and understanding the situation so it can be solved (defining the need)
Design: Assuming that the need can be resolved, what behaviour skills and knowledge will the counsellors need to possess? (Gagne 1979)
Development: Working from the objectives, what types of training strategies can be used to meet the counsellors' needs? (Markle 1978)
Implementation: Can we implement a plan that will satisfy needs of both client and counsellor?
Evaluation: When can the plan's effectiveness be measured? Is there anything that needs to be changed? Should the system continue to be the framework used by this counselling group?

Because the Friendship Centre Movement is "grass roots" community driven, the first task was to examine and determine the clients' expectation of the aboriginal employment counsellors. An analytical survey was developed and distributed to 11 Friendship Centres that have Employment Units. These centres are spread across Canada, from Halifax, Nova Scotia, to Prince George, British Columbia. The survey asked the following questions: What information must an employment counsellor possess? Why? How will the counsellor utilize this information? What problems may the counsellors encounter if they do not have this information?

The survey results indicated that three major, and three minor, service areas were emerging: AESN employment counsellors must possess counselling abilities, group-facilitation strengths, and labour-market diagnostic skills. Their secondary responsibilities must include: employment/agency mediation, client advocacy and labour-market advice. These competence areas were then visually represented by this graphic:

Figure 1



The next phase included developing specific process goals and objectives. We had to consider the exact skills required to form a common body of knowledge, and give thought to the logistical constraints and regional variations. In June 1994, the Steering Committee approved a second survey, which would assess areas of competence required by counsellors. These areas of competence were derived from the initial survey and redefined as skill capabilities. A rating scale of 1 to 5, with 5 signifying the most need and 1 signifying the least need (Oppenheim 1966, Rossett 1987), was assigned to each competency level. The results of the second survey were tabulated and analysed to form this final skill profile.

Competence area 1—Employment counsellor

The counsellor must possess the capability to guide and provide options, and assist clients in planning or making effective decisions.

Areas of competence

1.1 Theory: the understanding of the overall conceptual counselling framework

1.1.1 Communication skills: able to use counselling communication techniques

1.1.2 Client-assessment skills: able to accurately detail client need

1.2 Employment counselling modules: able to provide options, process, and support to clients who are seeking employment options

1.2.1 Career development: the knowledge of the overall process for long-term contact with the labour market

1.2.2 Job readiness: able to assess client readiness for job/education or employment training

1.2.3 Job-search skills: able to inform or instruct clients in the preparation of job search materials

1.2.4 Job-keeping skills: able to help clients adjust to the labour market

1.2.5 Work-placement planning skills: able to coach and facilitate clients in on-the-job training situations

1.2.6 Vocational and educational guidance: able to provide information about education, careers, and training that is relevant today and transferable to future labour-market needs.

1.3 Drug-and-alcohol assessment awareness: the knowledge to assess counselling readiness, based upon clients' ability to function and participate in employment

1.4 Learning-disabilities awareness: able to recognize possible learning disabilities and make appropriate referrals to help clients assess employment options

1.5 Literacy and numeracy: able to assess clients' literacy and numeracy levels for the labour market

1.6 Life-skills counselling: able to solve problems and assist clients in balancing: how these integers affect clients' career or employment options: work, leisure, community, family and home responsibilities.

Competence area 2—Facilitator

The counsellor must possess the ability to lead, facilitate, and process employment or training-related information to groups of learners.

2.1 Theory and techniques of group facilitation: able to understand facilitation

2.2 Group dynamic applications: able to demonstrate and practise effective facilitation techniques

2.3 Process techniques: able to foster group process to create outcomes

2.4 Presentation skills: able to communicate ideas and concepts effectively

2.5 Facilitation evaluation: able to reflect and debrief the presentation/program and assess if learning outcomes were met

2.6 Needs assessment: able to formulate, modify, and assess the needs of a group of clients in order to develop appropriate learning events relevant to the labour market

2.7 Program design: able to assemble and construct client-centred learning events that are relevant to the labour market

Competence area 3—Labour-market information provider

Able to gather, interpret and comprehend local, regional, and national labour-market information

3.1 Theory of the labour market as it relates to employment and career planning

3.2 Labour-market knowledge: able to comprehend the local and regional labour markets

3.3 Statistical interpreter: able to interpret and understand labour-market statistical information

3.4 Labour-market information-gathering: able to use labour-market information-gathering techniques

3.5 Resource providers: able to utilize career- and employment-resource information

3.6 Business-market information-provider: able to provide relevant business-market information for those who express entrepreneurial aspirations, also to refer these clients to other resources

3.7 Educational-information provider: able to source and interpret educational opportunities

3.8 Partnership identification: able to facilitate labour-market partnerships for training opportunities

Competence area 4—Mediator

The counsellor must be able to form connecting links between clients and referring agencies.

4.1 Mediation theory

4.2 Conflict-resolution skills

4.3 Problem-solving/consensus-building skills

4.4 Crisis-management training

4.5 Building a client referral system

Competence area 5—Advocate skills

The counsellor must be able to support and promote clients to the labour market.

5.1 Advocacy theory

5.2 Marketing employment to clients

5.3 Developing a market-referral network

Competence area 6—Labour-market advisor

The counsellor must possess specific information about organizations, employers, and employer strategies.

6.1 Organizational theory

6.2 Trend analysis

6.3 Gathering labour-market research

6.4 Informational interviewing

6.5 Implementing an employer database

With the design approved, the program development phase has begun. The Steering Committee is considering several implementation options. Emerging concerns include:

- Will credit for prior learning—formal, non-formal, or informal—be accepted?

- Can counsellors "challenge" a particular core competency based on their present knowledge or past experiences?
- If so, who will monitor and evaluate this process to provide quality assurance?
- Will there been ongoing evaluation and feedback of the counsellors to ensure counsellor professional development will continue?

These concerns will be addressed at the next meeting of the NAFC Employment Counsellors' Steering Committee.

This project is innovative in that a group of people, chosen by—and who work for—the community, took the opportunity to ask community members to define their needs. Such is the nature of community-responsive organizations in which accountability and credibility are shared responsibilities.

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Aperçu du Programme de développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle et quelques résultats de recherche

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Introduction

Cet exposé vise à présenter un aperçu du Programme de développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle (PDIPP) et quelques résultats de recherche relatifs à son expérimentation. Cette présentation s'inscrit dans le cadre d'un projet plus vaste dont l'objectif principal consistait à élaborer, expérimenter et évaluer, auprès de jeunes à risque, un programme de développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle dans le but de faciliter leur insertion socioprofessionnelle (Lord, Ouellette et Allard 1995; Lord et Ouellette 1994; Ouellette et autres 1990; Ouellette et Doucet 1991b).[1]

Les différentes étapes préalables à la réalisation de ce projet méritent d'être rappelées brièvement. D'abord, la préparation d'un document de notions a permis d'établir le cadre conceptuel sous-jacent au projet, de présenter une recension des écrits relativement à la problématique de l'insertion socioprofessionnelle et de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle des jeunes à risque, et de faire le bilan des interventions menées auprès des jeunes à risque (Ouellette et autres 1990; Ouellette et Doucet 1991b). La préparation de ce document a aussi mené à la conception d'un modèle macroscopique de l'insertion socioprofessionnelle par le biais du développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle (Allard et Ouellette 1990, 1995).

Ce modèle, dont la validité apparente à été vérifiée auprès de divers groupes de personnes intéressées aux jeunes à risque (Noël 1994; Ouellette et Doucet 1991a, 1992a, 1992b, 1994a), a servi de toile de fond dans le développement du programme d'intervention. L'analyse d'entrevues individuelles conduites auprès de jeunes à risque a donné naissance à un profil descriptif de ces jeunes et a confirmé l'existence de plusieurs éléments qui constituent le modèle proposé (Allard, Baudouin et Ouellette 1993a, 1993b; Allard et Ouellette 1994). Finalement, une dernière étape a consisté à opérationnaliser les concepts de l'identité personnelle (Ouellette, Lord et Belliveau 1991) et de l'identité professionnelle (Ouellette, Lord et Doucet 1991). L'opérationnalisation de l'identité personnelle et de ses composantes a été fortement inspirée de la théorie d'Erikson (1972) et des travaux de Hamachek (1985, 1988, 1990). Quant à l'identité professionnelle et ses composantes, leur opérationnalisation a été réalisée à la lumière du schème du développement professionnel de Havighurst (1964).

Programme de développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle

Élaboration du programme

L'élaboration du Programme de développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle (PDIPP) a été le fruit du travail d'une équipe de la faculté des sciences de l'éducation de l'Université de Moncton. Les modules, sous-modules et activités de ce programme ont été développés à la suite de la réalisation des diverses étapes identifiées précédemment et, particulièrement, à partir de l'opérationnalisation des concepts de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle.

L'expérimentation et l'évaluation du programme ont été réalisées en trois phases. La première phase a consisté en une *mise à l'essai* de quelques activités du programme pour une période de deux semaines auprès de deux groupes de jeunes à risque. Cette phase a permis de faire les mises au point nécessaires au contenu et aux modes d'intervention. La deuxième phase, soit la *préexpérimentation* de l'ensemble du programme, a été menée sur une période de 13 semaines (dont 10 semaines de formation et 3 semaines de stage) auprès de deux groupes de jeunes à risque. Cette préexpérimentation, qui a aussi pavé la voie à un certain nombre de modifications, a déjà fait l'objet d'une présentation au CONAT (Ouellette et Doucet 1993) et d'une autre publication (Ouellette et Doucet 1994b). Quant à la troisième et dernière phase, *l'expérimentation*, elle aussi a été répartie sur une période de 13 semaines (comprenant 10 semaines de formation et 3 semaines de stage). Cette expérimentation, dont quelques résultats apparaissent plus loin dans ce texte, a été effectuée auprès de deux groupes de jeunes à risque, jumelés à deux groupes témoins, et a servi à préparer la version finale du programme d'intervention.

Objectifs du programme

Le PDIPP vise essentiellement l'acquisition de connaissances, d'attitudes, d'habiletés et de comportements propres au développement d'une identité personnelle et professionnelle positive, et susceptibles de faciliter l'éventuelle insertion socioprofessionnelle des jeunes à risque. À partir du document d'opérationnalisation, des objectifs généraux, intermédiaires et spécifiques ont été développés, respectivement pour les modules, sous-modules et activités du programme.

Description du programme

Le programme comprend trois documents. Le premier, l'*Info-guide* (Ouellette et autres 1993a), dresse un bref aperçu du programme et il s'avère essentiel à sa compréhension et à son utilisation. Le deuxième, le *Volume I – Identité personnelle* (Ouellette et autres 1993b), comprend sept modules : un porte sur l'initiation au programme et les six autres ont trait aux composantes de l'identité personnelle (confiance, autonomie, initiative, industrie, identité et intimité). Le troisième document, le *Volume II – Identité professionnelle* (Ouellette et autres 1993c), regroupe les cinq derniers modules du programme, dont quatre portent sur les composantes de l'identité professionnelle (modèles de travailleurs, habitudes de travail, identité comme travailleur et productivité au travail) et un touche l'intégration et la transition.

Les 12 modules du PDIPP se répartissent en 59 sous-modules, lesquels contiennent à leur tour 98 activités. La conduite des activités s'inspire de l'approche expérientielle. Le PDIPP s'étale maintenant sur une période de 15 semaines à raison de 5 heures d'intervention de groupe par jour. Des rencontres individuelles ont lieu en fin de journée, selon le besoin, dans le but de fournir à la personne un soutien et un suivi lui permettant d'intégrer ses apprentissages dans diverses situations de sa vie. Trois semaines sont consacrées aux stages en milieu de travail; ceux-ci donnent l'occasion à la personne de faire le pont entre les contenus abordés et les expériences vécues en groupe, d'une part, et le monde du travail, d'autre part.

Présentation d'une activité

Parmi les 98 activités du programme, celle qui figure en annexe a été présentée dans le cadre de la communication au CONAT 1996. Cette activité, qui paraît à titre d'exemple, est tirée du module 6 : «Identité», sous-module 6.4 : «J'assume mes responsabilités.»

Possibilités d'application

Le PDIPP s'adresse à des adolescents et à des jeunes adultes qui vivent ou qui sont susceptibles de vivre des difficultés relativement à leur insertion socioprofessionnelle. Ces jeunes à risque peuvent être, entre autres, décrocheurs scolaires, mères célibataires, jeunes contrevenants, chômeurs ou bénéficiaires de l'aide au revenu. Il peut aussi s'agir de jeunes qui ont terminé leurs études secondaires.

Outre les jeunes à risque, le programme peut s'adresser à d'autres types de clientèle, notamment les jeunes en milieu scolaire, dans le cadre de programmes de formation personnelle ou d'orientation professionnelle. Enfin, le PDIPP peut servir d'outil de travail dans tout genre de formation visant le développement personnel et de carrière.

Formation des intervenants

Une formation professionnelle de base est recommandée pour tous les intervenants désirant offrir le PDIPP. Compte tenu des connaissances, attitudes et habiletés jugées nécessaires pour offrir le programme adéquatement, une formation complète en orientation, touchant à des composantes telles que le counselling personnel, de carrière et de groupe, l'animation de groupe, la pédagogie expérientielle ainsi que l'intervention en situation de crise, s'avère nécessaire. Pour les intervenants dont la formation n'a pas porté sur toutes ces composantes, une formation professionnelle d'appoint pourrait être offerte.

En plus de cette formation professionnelle, les intervenants sont appelés à suivre la formation spécifique au PDIPP. Cette formation vise l'acquisition de savoirs, de savoir-faire et de savoir-être qui tiennent compte, entre autres, de la clientèle, des théories qui sous-tendent le programme, des interventions individuelles et de groupe menées auprès des jeunes à risque, de l'approche préconisée et du contenu du programme.

Quelques résultats de recherche

Au fil des ans, plusieurs données de recherche ont été recueillies auprès des diverses clientèles qui ont suivi le PDIPP. Sont présentés plus bas quelques résultats quantitatifs et qualitatifs très généraux.

Résultats quantitatifs

Identité personnelle et identité professionnelle

La préexpérimentation du PDIPP a d'abord permis de constater que le programme avait des effets significatifs sur l'identité personnelle et l'identité professionnelle de jeunes à risque (Ouellette et Doucet 1993, 1994b).

Des effets significatifs sur l'identité personnelle et l'identité professionnelle ont aussi été trouvés lors de l'expérimentation du PDIPP, auprès de jeunes à risque, dans le cadre du projet de recherche. Au moyen de deux questionnaires expérimentaux élaborés pour les circonstances, l'un mesurant l'identité personnelle (Lord et Ouellette 1992) et l'autre, l'identité professionnelle (Paquette et Ouellette 1992), des données ont été recueillies relativement aux attitudes, habiletés et connaissances ayant trait à ces deux identités.

En ce qui a trait à l'identité personnelle, des analyses comparatives ont permis de constater qu'un groupe expérimental ayant suivi le PDIPP avait fait des gains significatifs entre le pré-test et le post-test sur les attitudes, les habiletés et les connaissances, alors que les résultats du groupe témoin n'avaient pas augmenté significativement sur ces trois variables de l'identité personnelle. Ces résultats nous amènent à conclure que le PDIPP semble avoir des effets sur le développement de l'identité personnelle des jeunes à risque.

Quant à l'identité professionnelle, les résultats obtenus au pré-test et au post-test ont aussi indiqué une amélioration significative des habiletés et des connaissances relatives à l'identité professionnelle pour les jeunes qui ont suivi le PDIPP, alors que ceux du groupe témoin n'ont fait aucun gain significatif sur les deux variables. Par ailleurs, les sujets du groupe expérimental et du groupe témoin n'ont connu aucune augmentation significative sur la mesure des attitudes de l'identité professionnelle. Ces résultats nous invitent à constater que, pour ce groupe expérimental de jeunes à risque, le PDIPP ne semble pas avoir eu d'effet sur les attitudes reliées à leur identité professionnelle. Il se peut que, pour ce type de jeunes, leurs attitudes soient ancrées au point où le programme ne réussit pas à provoquer des changements significatifs ou encore que les attitudes relatives à l'identité professionnelle prennent beaucoup plus de temps à se modifier.

D'autres expérimentations du PDIPP auprès de diverses populations (jeunes à risque, décrocheurs scolaires potentiels et élèves du milieu scolaire inscrits à un cours de formation personnelle) ont révélé que ces groupes de sujets faisaient la plupart du temps des gains, tantôt significatifs tantôt non significatifs, sur les attitudes, habiletés et connaissances reliées à l'identité personnelle et à l'identité professionnelle. Les acquisitions par rapport aux connaissances sont celles qui s'avèrent les plus constantes. En somme, le PDIPP semble avoir des effets bénéfiques sur l'identité personnelle et professionnelle de diverses clientèles.

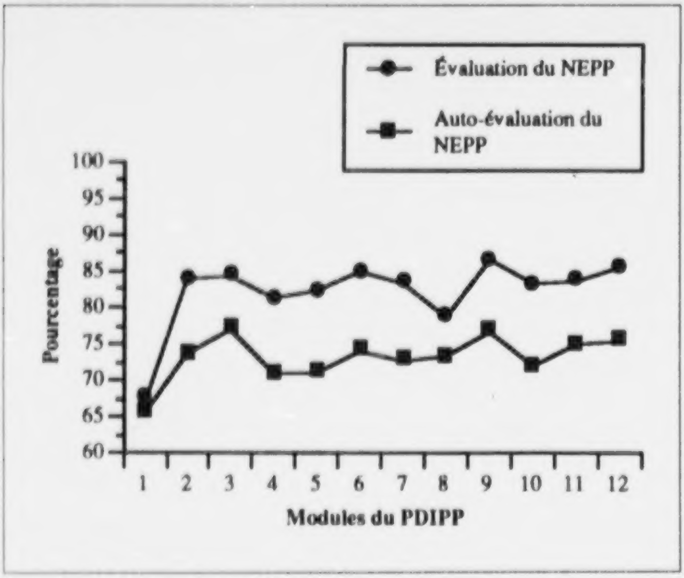
Niveau d'engagement

Les résultats relatifs au niveau d'engagement des participants lors de l'expérimentation du PDIPP sont présentés pour l'ensemble du programme de même que pour chaque module. Il importe de mentionner que l'auto-évaluation du niveau d'engagement des participantes et participants (NEPP) à l'expérimentation a été obtenue à partir d'une cote sur une échelle allant de 0–9 % (pas du tout engagé) à 90–100 % (extrêmement engagé). Quant à l'évaluation du NEPP faite par l'animateur, elle a été cotée à partir de la même échelle.

De façon générale, les résultats de l'auto-évaluation du NEPP semblent constants, en ce sens que les participantes et participants se perçoivent, généralement comme étant «très engagés» pour l'ensemble de la formation (voir figure 1). Les scores relatifs à l'auto-évaluation du NEPP varient entre 71 % (module 4 : «Initiative») et 76,7 % (module 9 : «Habitudes de travail») avec une moyenne de 73,2 % pour l'ensemble du programme, si l'on excepte les résultats du module 1 : «Introduction» (65,7 %).

À l'instar des résultats de l'auto-évaluation du NEPP, l'animateur du programme a perçu les participants comme étant généralement, «très engagés» pour l'ensemble de la formation (voir figure 1). Mis à part le module 1 : « Introduction » (67,6 %), le NEPP évalué par l'animateur oscille entre 78,7 % (module 8 : «Modèles de travailleuses et de travailleurs») et 86,5 % (module 9 : «Habitudes de travail») avec une moyenne de 82,1 %. Le NEPP évalué par l'animateur est, selon le module, de 5 à 11 % supérieur à celui obtenu à l'auto-évaluation, si l'on excepte les résultats du premier module.

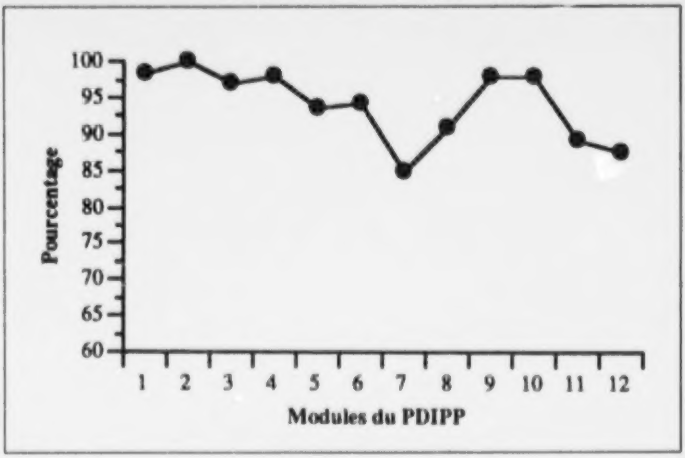
Figure 1 Distribution du niveau d'engagement pour chaque module du PDIPP



Taux d'assiduité

Le taux d'assiduité des participantes et participants (TAPP) correspond à l'accumulation du nombre de demi-journées de présence sur le nombre de demi-journées possible de formation. Les résultats du TAPP indiquent que les participants sont demeurés assez assidus pour l'ensemble du PDIPP (voir figure 2). En fait, le TAPP varie de 100 % (module 2 : «Confiance») à 85 % (module 7 : «Intimité») tout en gardant une moyenne passablement élevée (94,2 %) pendant tout le programme. Ces résultats peuvent paraître élevés compte tenu de ce type de clientèle, les jeunes à risque. Par ailleurs, le fait que ces derniers recevaient une allocation hebdomadaire a pu les inciter à surveiller leur niveau d'assiduité. Pour ce qui est du TAPP relativement aux stages, les participants ont également fait preuve d'une assez grande assiduité. Les taux varient entre 100 % (premier stage) et 80 % (dernier stage), la moyenne se situant à 90 % pour les trois stages.

Figure 2 Distribution du taux d'assiduité pour chaque module du PDIPP



Résultats qualitatifs

Pendant le programme, les participants étaient appelés, à plusieurs reprises, à faire part de leur appréciation ou de leurs commentaires. Voici quelques commentaires obtenus lors des périodes de rétroaction :

- Ça m'a donné un sens d'accomplissement. Je suis fière de moi et ça me donne de la confiance en moi.
- J'ai appris à penser plus positivement face à moi-même.
- Si je suis autonome, je serai plus productive pour la société (je donnerai de l'argent sur ma paye pour la société). Je serai aussi plus débrouillarde et même plus confiante.
- Si je suis plus autonome, ça va me donner le courage de faire ce que je veux faire dans la vie sans penser que les autres vont me dire quoi faire. Je pourrai vivre ma vie et faire mes propres choix et accepter les conséquences qui viennent avec mes actions.
- Je me connais beaucoup mieux du point de vue de mes forces et de mes limites.
- Le programme m'a permis de réfléchir à savoir quelle carrière j'envisage dans le futur, et aussi j'ai appris à mieux me présenter devant un groupe.
- J'ai vraiment aimé faire partie de ce programme. Je pense que si on veut se donner la peine, le programme va tous nous aider. Moi, personnellement, j'ai fait des efforts.
- J'ai beaucoup aimé les stages, car j'ai réalisé, à travers ceux-ci, quelle profession j'aimerais faire une fois que j'aurai terminé ma douzième année.
- Maintenant, j'ai confiance en moi, je n'ai pas peur de foncer et de prendre des risques, et ça m'a aidé à me connaître moi-même comme personne.

Note

1 Ce projet a été rendu possible grâce à la contribution du ministère de l'Enseignement supérieur et du Travail du Nouveau-Brunswick (Stratégie jeunesse), de la Fondation canadienne d'orientation et de consultation, des centres d'emploi de Moncton, Bathurst et Miramichi, ainsi que de l'Université de Moncton.

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Annexe—Exemple d'une activité tirée du PDIPP

Module 6 : Identité

Objectifs généraux du module

Ce module vise à amener les participants à une intégration de leurs identifications et à une acceptation d'eux-mêmes. Il a également pour objectif de les amener à mieux se connaître, à se donner un sens de direction personnelle et à développer la capacité de prendre des décisions réfléchies.

Sous-module 6.4 : J'assume mes responsabilités

Objectif intermédiaire

Amener les participants à assumer leurs responsabilités.

Activité 6.4.1 : Des scénarios casse-tête!

Objectif spécifique

Découvrir l'importance de prendre ses responsabilités.

Méthodes pédagogiques

Travail en petit groupe, simulation, travail en grand groupe

Résumé de l'activité

Le groupe est divisé en deux équipes. Chaque équipe est responsable de monter un scénario et de le jouer. La seule consigne est d'utiliser tous les mots se trouvant sur les fiches (les mots clés sont différents sur les deux fiches). Lorsque les deux équipes ont terminé, chacune présente son scénario à l'autre équipe pendant que le conseiller l'enregistre sur vidéocassette. Le groupe en entier est ensuite invité à visionner les deux scénarios sur le téléviseur. Une discussion en grand groupe s'ensuit. Le conseiller s'assure de faire ressortir le thème « assumer ses responsabilités » et les conséquences découlant des deux scénarios.

Note

Le conseiller s'assure au départ de ne pas mentionner le thème du sous-module 6.4 ou celui de l'activité 6.4.1.

Déroulement

Étape 1 (préparation à l'expérience)

Le conseiller demande aux participants de répondre à ces questions :

- Comment réagirais-tu si quelqu'un te demandait de monter un scénario de film?
- Comment te sentirais-tu de jouer un rôle à partir d'un scénario que tu aurais monté toi-même?

Étape 2

Le conseiller explique les démarches de l'activité:

- Le groupe est divisé en deux équipes égales.
- Chaque équipe reçoit une fiche avec une liste de mots clés.
- Chaque équipe doit monter un scénario en s'assurant d'utiliser tous les mots de la liste dans l'ordre présenté.
- Quand les deux équipes ont terminé, chacune joue, à tour de rôle, son scénario.

Le conseiller s'occupe d'enregistrer les scénarios sur vidéocassette.

Étape 3

Le conseiller divise le groupe en deux équipes égales et donne à chacune une fiche de mots clés. L'équipe n° 1 recevra la fiche 6.4.1(1) «Mots clés à utiliser dans le scénario 1» et l'équipe n° 2 recevra la fiche 6.4.1(2) «Mots clés à utiliser dans le scénario 2». Le conseiller donne approximativement 30 minutes afin de permettre aux deux équipes de monter et de pratiquer leur scénario. Il circule afin de s'assurer que tous les mots clés sont utilisés dans l'ordre présenté sur les fiches.

Étape 4

Les deux équipes jouent leur scénario pendant que le conseiller l'enregistre sur vidéocassette. Les participants sont invités à bien observer le déroulement de chacune des histoires.

Étape 5

De retour en grand groupe, le conseiller invite les participants à visionner les deux scénarios sur le téléviseur. Une discussion fait suite au visionnement. Le conseiller invite les participants à faire part de leurs réactions.

- Que s'est-il passé dans chacun des scénarios?
- En quoi les scénarios étaient-ils différents l'un de l'autre?
- Quelles étaient les conséquences dans les deux cas?
- Quel était le thème (sujet) principal des deux scénarios?
- Quelle relation vois-tu entre ces scénarios et le fait de prendre ses responsabilités?
- Qu'est-ce qui fait qu'une des deux personnes prend ses responsabilités et que l'autre attribue la responsabilité à ses amies ou amis?

Le conseiller s'assure d'orienter la discussion sur le thème « prendre ses responsabilités ».

Étape 6 (signification de l'expérience)

Le conseiller demande aux participants de répondre aux questions suivantes:

- Que signifie maintenant pour toi « avoir le sens des responsabilités »?
- Qu'as-tu appris sur le sens des responsabilités à la suite de cette activité?
- Quel lien fais-tu entre le fait de prendre ses responsabilités et le fait d'avoir sa propre identité?

Le conseiller s'assure de faire le lien explicite entre le fait de prendre ses responsabilités et le fait d'avoir sa propre identité.

Fiche 6.4.1 (1)

Mots clés à utiliser dans le scénario 1

Montez un scénario en utilisant tous les mots de la liste suivante dans l'ordre présenté.

1 chums ou amis
2 *party*
3 chalet
4 alcool
5 nuit
6 lendemain matin
7 *hangover*
8 travail
9 absente ou absent
10 employeur choqué
11 c'est pas de ma faute
12 c'est la faute de mes chums
13 mis à la porte

Fiche 6.4.1 (2)

Mots clés à utiliser dans le scénario 2

Montez un scénario en utilisant tous les mots de la liste suivante dans l'ordre présenté.

1 chums ou amis
2 *party*
3 chalet
4 alcool
5 nuit
6 lendemain matin
7 *hangover*
8 travail
9 mal de tête
10 c'est de ma faute
11 présent au travail
12 employeur satisfait
13 garde son emploi

Are you where you want to be?

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Introduction

This paper comes to a single question: *Are you where you want to be?* This query arises from three sub-problems: What is an appropriate time frame for an entrepreneurial training course? What types of pre-screening, if any, may be effective? What success measures, if any, may be used to evaluate the Self-Employment Assistance (SEA)Program offered across the country by Canada Employment Centres?

These questions will be explored in the following sections: People-Talk, Change-Talk, Learning-Talk, SEA-Talk, and Walk-Our-Talk. Brief vignettes provided grounding and set the stage for these explorations. The number of participants in the training course was so small that ethical considerations preclude specific details.

Three men and seven women became eligible for unemployment insurance, and enrolled in an entrepreneurial training course in a rural community. These middle-class people were predominately in their middle years. For 20 spring days, practising entrepreneurs and trainees talked (McLaren 1990, pp. 12–13) about self-employment. We created a life-space and a subculture, graciously sprinkled with still times for research and spiced with special relationships (MacDonald 1986).

Course training focused on teamwork, ordinary planning skills, and the language of business. Participants heralded each presentation with their title and company name. Dreams were shared, then translated into corporate descriptions. Opportunities were discussed with colleagues who held different perceptions of reality.

People-Talk

In 1990, Donna Sealy studied 100 independent and 4 institutional programs in Canada (Kreuger and Sealy 1995, p. 255). Sealy found that 8% of the unemployed and under-employed population, 1% of unemployment insurance recipients, and 0.5% of socialassistance recipients might consider starting a business. Grave and Gauthier (1995, p. 17) conducted two telephone surveys. The first one involved interviews with 1,479 respondents who were participants in the Self-Employment Assistance Program. The second survey involved interviews with 100 respondents who were program participants and social-assistance recipients. Graves and Gauthier (1995, Exhibit A5.1) found that one-person enterprises constituted 60% of the self-employed organizations in their sample. The ratio of men to women was 65 to 35. The number of individuals who were married was 70%. The number of spouses who were employed was 60%. An underlying assumption was that this monthly income provided predictable cash flows that may have increased the likelihood of capital investment and survival beyond three years.

Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 42) also found that entrepreneurs often had previous managerial experience. A wide range of skills (Bolles1993; Conference Board of Canada 1993) is needed to direct, promote, and manage strategic planning and daily operations. Chandler (1962, p. 11) argued that entrepreneurs are decision makers who redirect resources for the enterprise as a whole. Drucker (1974, p. 46) contended that "10 to 15 percent produce 80 to 90 percent of the results." One underlying assumption was that this percentage range represented leaders rather than mangers.

Two sets of federal evaluators (Wong et al. 1993; Graves and Gauthier 1995) drew attention to the significance of training for self-employment. Graves and Gauthier (1995, pp. 55, 108) generated a positive correlation between training and business survival in their outcomes model. They also noted that seminars and one-on-one sessions often covered bookkeeping/accounting, marketing, management, and financing/ financial planning. Their findings were consistent with the research of Sealy (1990), who found that most entrepreneurial programs covered the same material, that is, the preparation of a business or market plan.

The first sub-problem is: *What is an appropriate time frame for an entrepreneurial training course*? The original course specification called for six weeks of training. Financial considerations prompted a reduction to four weeks. By the midpoint of the course, real-time curriculum development yielded an intriguing projection: course delivery could be completed in two weeks. The estimated increase in overall effectiveness was 30%.

Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 32) found a significant variation in the type and duration of training. Two weeks was a basic business allotment for vacations. This time span represents a practical commitment and potentially cost-effective contribution towards a new career. Walton (1996, p. 3) suggested another option; specifically, the separation of classroom sessions with a week-long practicum period. The two-week time span may increase potential course enrolment, foster attendance, and facilitate focused attention on business-planning deliverables. Competitive analyses of specific organizations and their problems (Greenfield and Ribbins 1993, p. 13) may permit genuine course customization and promote faster learning.

Graves and Gauthier (1995, Exhibit A5.3) found that a basic entrepreneurial training course spanned 42 hours on average. MBA students are trained as chief executive officers. They can manage every aspect of a business from research to operations. These individuals may have achieved this capability through 4,000 hours of study over a two-year period. Can the MBA experience be replicated? What can reasonably be achieved in a few weeks? Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 55) also found that many participants in a Canadian program were critical of the amount of training provided and the instructors who lacked entrepreneurial experience. Wong et al. (1993, p. 54) cited the results of Swedish evaluators who had concluded that "an efficient supportive network of skilled workers turned out to be more effective for participants than a crash course in small business management."

At the midpoint of the course, it was proposed that at-risk participants form a Jaguar Entrepreneurs International club. The original concept was that this structure would provide support during the start-up phase. This temporary staging point might foster permanent membership in community organizations such as the Rotary Club and Toastmasters International.

Change-Talk

Pre-screening initially took the form of a small-group presentation followed by individual counselling. Late arrivals were enrolled until the midpoint of the course. These entrepreneurs were embraced through teamwork and brainstorming sessions that focused on new ideas. The last day of each week was dedicated to one-on-one sessions. Individual emphasis was on openness to inquiry and self-appraisal (Morgan 1986, p. 105).

Graves and Gauthier (1995, Exhibit A5.3) found that approximately 7% of the training by private delivery agents of a Canadian program covered legal matters. A local lawyer delivered a two-hour presentation near the end of the entrepreneurial training course. Employment contracts emerged during one session as a noteworthy constraint on business startup. A national firm authorized rural franchisees to balance the seasonal nature of their core business with expansion into any other business area.

Newman (1975) contended that the Canadian business establishment was predominantly male. He argued that these individuals functioned as a non-elected government. One of his assumptions was that their financial and corporate voting power or *herrschaften* (Abbott and Caracheo 1988, p. 241) would be directed towards accrual of their wealth and preservaton of their privileges. Institutions, corporations, and transnationals could seek to manage internal change through indoctrination. Newman (1975, p. 144) contended that "no power exists without order. That is why businessmen place so much emphasis on institutions and hierarchies in which people know and keep their place."

Solo entrepreneurs seem to float in a conceptual vortex between certainty and chaos. Is their quest a niche in the marketplace that differentiates between their enterprise and establishment ones? Is that vision a mirage in a world where consumption choices outpace production reactions?

Drucker (1974, p. 47) was convinced that managed change was inevitable. Corporate entrepreneurs start with the conviction that tomorrow will and must be different from today. Greenfield (1994, p. 128) contended that organizations are cultural artifacts. His phenomenological perspective is consistent with the view advocated by Drucker. Intent and willingness to change seem entrepreneurial constants.

The second sub-problem is: *What types of pre-screening, if any, may be effective?* People who preferred stasis were encouraged during the training course to either review their assumptions or avoid this career path. Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 118) found reliable predictors of the characteristics of successful entrepreneurs, which were previous managerial responsibilities, small business training, and large injection of personal equity into the venture.

Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 44) also identified low risk aversion, desire for greater autonomy, and high achievement orientation as key attitudinal variables.

Learning-Talk

The entrepreneurial training course focused on the research and planning process. The deliverable was a business plan that was reviewed on multiple occasions by colleagues. An overview was presented to a Canada Employment Centre manager at the end of the course. A mind-set developed amongst many participants that this task was a one-time event rather than a periodic or ongoing process.

Simon (1976, p. 16) suggested that "training may supply facts, provide a frame of reference, teach 'approved solutions,' and indoctrinate values." Joyner and Price (1995, p. 179) focused on adaptive training as "learning for survival." What must be learned? Ruffolo (1995, p. 114) identified ten factors that may be used to characterize a "successful, competent, global professional." Problem solving, decision making, and learning to learn were perceived by transnationals as skills that outweighed specific domain knowledge, "accounting for successful job performance over time" (Ruffolo 1995, p. 115).

Usher and Edwards (1994, p. 31) had laid down a postmodernist barrage of questions: "Whose reason and whose control? Progress for whom? Who becomes free? Who is cast as the other?" In 1902, Sun Yat-Sen had advocated equality in education (Lanxin 1994, p. 598):

> Everyone in the society can enter public schools, no matter who they are. They will learn different subjects according to their own intelligence and wisdom. The less intelligent ones who cannot benefit from higher education will be trained in agriculture, industry or commerce so that they can make a living independently.

Sun Yat-Sen died before he could implement his prescription in China.

Where can an "independent living" be found today in a country where Newman's establishment dominates industry, commerce, and agro-business? Campbell (1995, p. 162) argued that information creation in the service sector is one possibility. He estimated that 90% of all new jobs created during the past decade have been in this knowledge domain. Graves and Gauthier (1995, Exhibit A5.5) estimated that one-third of entrepreneurs operated in the "business" and "other" service categories.

Usher and Edwards (1994) noted that for years postmodernists have pondered "a new epoch, a new socio-economic order, associated with the notion of a post-culture, 'post-industrial' society and the changes produced by information technology" (p. 8). Have machines, robots (Ferguson 1994, p. 93), and computers (Morgan 1986, p. 31) removed or made obsolete the grand notion of "independent living" as a goal for unskilled workers and entrepreneurs?

SEA-Talk

Wong et al. (1993, p. 66) cited a three-year survival rate of 76.2 % for participants in the Self-Employment Initiative (SEI) between 1988 and 1990. Community Development Employment Policies (1993, pp. 1–2) noted in its final report on the proposed Self-Employment Assistance (SEA) Program that this intervention was "one in an array of self-employment or entrepreneurship assistance options." Sealy (1990) found that 60% of participants in entrepreneurial programs without a comprehensive selection process actually started a business. They contended that the success rate was 80% for local programs with a selection process. Success was defined as "start-up and operation for six months" (Krueger and Sealy 1995, p. 225).

A business development centre delivered a two-hour program orientation to participants of the entrepreneurial training course. Its exclusive mandate had recently been expanded from economically-distressed communities to a third of the province. High double-digit success rates were cited. Possible extension of unemployment insurance benefits up to a maximum of 52 weeks was mentioned. Dollars, numbers, and rules (Ontario Social Development Council, 1993, Appendix III, p. 2) moved to the foreground. Did acceptance virtually guarantee success? Did the need for planning and support end with the submission of a business plan and completion of the one-year cash-flow form?

One trainee became eligible for the SEA program during the course. Another was accepted afterwards. A third trainee was persuaded to accept only 13 weeks of unemployment insurance benefits after a verbal appeal. The business development centre hosted a barbecue and published a newsletter. Articles on the benefits of networking were included. The names of federal and provincial politicians were listed. Several pages were dedicated to copies of program participants' business cards.

Table 1 records two sets of selection criteria that Human Resources Development Canada (Wong et al., 1993, p. 13; Graves and Gauthier 1995, p. 7) has specified as guidelines.

Table 1 Selection Criteria Used by Business Development Centres

1993	1995
Feasibility of the business	Competition (presence of similar businesses in the area)
Competitive considerations	Viability of the business
	Skills and experience
	Degree to which S. E. A. will advance the applicant's career
Fit within local community-development strategic plan	Potential for incremental employment
Adherence to the local planning framework	Ecomonic contribution to the communicity
	Applicant's level of commitment

In 1995, competitive considerations rank first rather than second. Community considerations are cloaked in a mantle of macro-economics. Individual considerations have moved into the foreground.

The third sub-problem is: *What success measures, if any, may be used to evaluate the Self-Employment Assistance* (SEA) *Program offered across the country by Canada Employment Centres?* A premise is an assertion or formal statement of a theorem or problem that often includes its demonstration. In 1990, the Advisory Group on Self-Employment (Community Development Employment Policies 1993, p. 1) made the premise that:

> self-employment is a reasonable, equivalent alternative to traditional employment, effective both [1] as a workforce adjustment mechanism to integrate designated groups and other priority clients into the labour force and [2] as a development tool for local economies.

The 1993 federal evaluation contributed to informed discussion and policy debate. Wong et al. (1993, p. 61) were encouraged by "three main lines of empirical evidence: the Self-Employment Initiative (SEI) experience, macro-economic flows in and out of self-employment, and international assessments. This evaluation contained two findings worthy of attention. The first one was the importance of paid employment as a supplementary source of income. The second one was the critical nature of the third year of operation (Wong et al. 1993, p. 22).

The 1995 evaluation satisfied a Treasury Board requirement for cyclical review of federal programs. Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 118) focused their study on a one-year time frame and the Self-Employment Assistance (SEA) experience. They posited the following set of queries: Does the program make sense? Is it reaching the intended clientele? Is it structured and organized in a way that maximizes potential for program success? Does it generate the impacts and effects that were intended?

The multiplier factor was three-to-one. In monetary terms, participants created an estimated $300 million while drawing down $122 million. Participants who would have started their own businesses, with or without extension of unemployment insurance benefits, represented 56% of the sample population. This group was labeled "dead weight." A critical review of *NATCON Papers 1995 Les actes du CONAT* disclosed only one statement that represented a possible quantitative measure of success. As mentioned previously, Krueger and Sealy (1995, p. 225) specified the condition of six months. Success was a virtual certainty given 16 months of unemployment insurance benefits, on average, and a survival threshold of 36 months.

Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 120) found that the main benefit of the program for participants was that it "raises their spirits while moving them away from reliance on the UI (Unemployment Insurance) system." This monetary injection can bring morale up fast; then let it down hard! What was the bottom line for these "gamblers"? Graves and Gauthier (1995, p. 119) suggested that a future reality of longer working hours and significant personal resource investment was apparently exchanged for self-fulfillment and a sense of control over their lives.

Walk-Our-Talk

The entrepreneurial training course was for the older participants a financial "end-of-the-line." Their naivety shattered! Industrial progress could no longer fulfil the old certainty of "well-paying jobs that required few academic or technological skills" (Bugler 1995, p. 200). Five adventurers from the course formed an alliance and travelled together for the next six months. Support took the form of fellowship, as each entrepreneur grappled with the original question: Are you where you want to be?

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Becoming self-directed: The importance of values assessment

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Are you a noun or a verb?

Think about it: How do you respond when someone asks "What do you do?" Do you describe yourself as a consultant, or do you provide advice and insight in assisting a client group solve a problem? Are you a manager or do you run the human resources department? Are you a computer programmer or do you produce the company's sales reports?

Ask different people what they do. Chances are that the people who most enjoy their work and do it well, will reply using action verbs—they tell you what they *do* rather than give you a *job title.* Ask a few more questions and you'll likely discover that these people have well-rounded lives as well.

Example

Cathy was looking for a full-time job and was keeping her spirits up by pursuing several of her leisure activities: hiking, music, and antiquing. While rafting down the Colorado River, she met someone who offered her a job—working with the rafting company part of the year—which fit in with working the rest of the year at her other passion—a small antique business. By background, she was a marine biologist.

This process is part of the renaissance our workplace is going through. This is the most significant transition our workplace has seen since the end of the agrarian age and the rise of the industrial revolution. We are experiencing a cultural shift from employment for life to employment at will.

To put a twist on a familiar refrain, "for better for worse, for richer for poorer," the employment relationship before 1989 was "to be a loyal servant, for profitability or not, in downsizing or not, till retirement do us part." This is being replaced with "to work together, as long as it lasts, or as long as we are both gaining from the relationship, or as long as we wish to contribute value, have some fun, and be part of something."

In the workshop, I will present to you why I developed the Valuescards™, the underlying principle behind their development, and then you will have an opportunity to experience the tool.

Career-transition consultants typically have the following experience when consulting with a client: I am called to a termination meeting to coach a manager who will be providing the notification. As I go through the process, I probe as to why John's employment is being terminated. I get a long and involved story about how John doesn't understand the manager's needs and priorities, how his style grates on his nerves, how he doesn't fit the direction of the organization, and in reality this should have been done five years ago. There have always been minor performance problems, but not enough to terminate his employment for cause—he has had run-ins with several of his co-workers, and he doesn't seem to embody the vision of the organization.

What the manager is trying to describe is a "fit issue". This is a common reason for people to lose their jobs. We can see that the manager is actually experiencing a fundamental difference in *values* with those of the employee.

Several days later, I have the privilege of meeting our new candidate—John. Fairly early in the counselling process I ask, "Has this come as a surprise to you?" It is not unusual for us to hear that although it is a shock (that the decision has finally been made), the reality is that it was not a surprise. On further probing, John begins to describe how he felt that there was a poor fit between himself and his manager, how the direction of the department had changed, and he did not support the new direction. The reality is that although John does not want to conduct a job search, he was not really happy—and, he adds under his breath, "It was beginning to affect my life at home."

What is John talking about? He is talking about how his values and the values of the organization were no longer congruent. There was not enough congruency between his values and the values of his organization, to the point that he did not feel a sense of personal satisfaction—the result was no matter how competent he was, it would never be good enough for the manager, and the result was his dismissal.

You may find, as I do, that it is relatively easy for the counsellor to determine a number of the values-based reasons for a candidate's dismissal. However, this is irrelevant—it is the candidate who must develop an understanding of why he was dismissed. It is from this perspective that I began to focus on the issue of values assessment and their congruence with organizational values, and their impact on career decision-making. From the career-transition consultants' perspective, there are four significant issues our clients face related to values factors:

1. How do I smoothly integrate my values into making career and life decisions? And in a job loss, Why me?
2. How do I determine what values are really important in my life and what is a balanced life for me?
3. How do I identify organizational values and assess their compatibility with mine?
4. When faced with a career transition, how do I deal with the sense of being out of sync with my values?

For those of you who are also consulting with organizations, there are values issues of an equally compelling nature:

1. How to objectively determine a person's fit within the organization?
2. How to match the needs and values of individuals to those of the organization?
3. How to foster the development of an organization that values self-directed employees who will help to meet current and future organizational needs?

The Valuescards™ that I developed are an effective tool that helps our clients identify their core personal values, supporting behaviours, attitudes, and beliefs, and link them to organizational values.

Through my work with people in transition and in organizations, we have determined there are two types of values that have relevance in the workplace: *guiding* and *practical* values. This distinction is important when people have difficulty in clearly determining and stating what is important to them within the context of career decision-making.

Play-out the following scenario

I ask my client, "What are your values that influence your career decisions?"

Client answer: "I don't know." The client is really thinking, Why is this lady asking me this question! I don't even want to think of the answer. And besides, how relevant is that to getting a job anyway? Now she has made me angry. I think I won't come back. Client continues with, "Oh yeah, family. Family is important."

The Valuescards™ approach takes into consideration both guiding and practical values. Guiding values are the values of higher order that set the standards by which we live our lives. The practical values are ways of behaving and how we make decisions and choices regarding work, family involvement, and lifestyle. Practical values directly affect behaviours in everyday life and lead to actions to get us to where we would like to be in life.

By using the Valuescards™—an easy-to-use, non-threatening self-assessment tool—the client is able to easily access the critical information needed to make life and career decisions from a position of knowledge. The client can easily validate the information by using the provided worksheets, or with the assistance of a career coach. The client can then establish the elements needed for personal self-satisfaction, and the criteria for determining if a company job will support or hinder self-satisfaction.

Conclusion

New behaviours will only persist if a link is established with personal values. What requires new behaviours is catalytic change. If this does not happen, the result will, in fact, be open resistance.

It is a difficult and time-consuming process for our clients to review, assess, and validate their values, behaviours, attitudes, and beliefs. In career transitions and life planning, the values-assessment process is the foundation from which all decisions are made, and experiences of self-satisfaction are based. It takes a highly skilled facilitator to assist a client in processing this information, yet it is one of the most valuable aspects of the career-development process.

B.E.S.T. Tools for Life

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There lies within us all the potential for greatness. B.E.S.T. Tools for Life has the tools to assist you to reach that greatness.

Attitude and success

Why are some people successful and others not? What is the difference? We spend our lives learning skills from our parents, teachers, and society. Yes, we know that we need skills and a good education to get ahead in life, but we also know that with all the skills in the world and a poor attitude, we won't get too far in life. Society, being as it is, has tunnel vision. It teaches us from kindergarten onward that our lives should be focused on skills, and it *never* taught us the importance of attitudes.

When you develop a good attitude toward yourself, your goals, and your life, you can achieve anything. Your attitude is determined by the thoughts you think, and since you are the only thinker in your universe, your thoughts should be creative instead of destructive.

Mega mind

Conscious mind: your five senses (taste, smell, touch, seeing, hearing) feed into the conscious part of your mind. This is the part of you with which you reason, choose, and analyse.

The subconscious mind has infinite intelligence and boundless wisdom. It is fed by hidden springs, and it is called the law of life. Whatever you impress upon your subconscious mind, it will move heaven and earth to bring it to pass. You must, therefore, impress it with right ideas and constructive thoughts.

Your subconscious mind is always working. It is active night and day, whether you act upon it or not. Your subconscious is the builder of your body. There is no sickness or discord when the conscious and subconscious work together harmoniously and peacefully.

Begin now to take care of your conscious mind, knowing in your heart and soul that your subconscious mind is always expressing, reproducing, and manifesting according to your habitual thinking.

Change

"If you don't like what you have in life, you have to change what you're doing, otherwise you'll keep on getting what you're getting." Most of us don't think! We rely on others for ideas! We rely on their expertise for guidance. We tend to listen to those we respect, but who may well not be the experts.

We have the power within ourselves. All we have to do to expand our thinking is open our minds to new ideas and concepts. If you want to make a change, there is only one person who can do that, and that person is—that's right--you. There are basically two types of people in this world: those who think they can and those who think they can't. They are both right. Which category do you fit into?

A phrase that we are hearing a lot of is "paradigm shift." What is a paradigm? The dictionary describes *paradigm* as a boundary, a pattern, limitations, and examples we are accustomed to. Adding the word *shift* would indicate that we are in a process of having to change old patterns and boundaries. In order to change the patterns and boundaries, we have to change our thought patterns.

A paradigm shift also relates to our goals, our relationships, our careers. If you want to change, you have to commit to yourself fully. There is a difference between interest and commitment. When you're interested in doing something, you do it only when it's convenient. When you are committed to something, you accept no excuses—only results. If you want anything badly enough, then you must realize that you will have to put some effort into the process. It will not happen by itself. Action is the key.

Fear

Fear is our biggest enemy. We become fearful of the unknown. We become fearful because we might fail. We become fearful because our family questions our sanity or motives. We were born with two fears—fear of noise and fear of falling. All other fears we have are ideas that were passed down by the generations. We have nurtured them. Take a look at what fear means: impending danger, the unknown, failure. Look at failure this way:

F frustration
A aggressive
I insecurity
L loneliness
U uncertainty
R resentment
E emptiness

Fear is the most powerful of all of our negative feelings. It demands and appeals to all the forces of destruction and painful sacrifices. We have seven major fears that feed off each other and stick together like glue. They are (1) fear of being poor (poverty), (2) fear of being criticized, (3) fear of getting sick (ill health), (4) fear of being lonely (loss of love), (5) fear of lack of freedom, (6) fear of growing old, (7) fear of dying. Fear = **F**alse **E**vidence **A**ppearing **R**eal.

Self-esteem

Looking into our past and finding the core of our problem, we find that the pain and hurt has been brought on by our own inner talk. We continually reinforce the "I am not…enough" belief. Study the five qualities that make up our characteristics.

1 *Self-worth* It is a god-given gift at birth.
2 *Self-esteem* It is the recognition of your self-worth.
3 *Self-love* It is the regard you have for your own happiness.
4 *Self-confidence* It is the basic trust you have in your ability to accomplish anything.
5 *Self-image* It is your concept of who you are.

You have been created for greatness—you have been put on this earth to be the masterpiece of greatness. No matter what you may think, we were not put here to fail or lose.

Another true destroyer of self-esteem is guilt. We are all human, we all make mistakes, and we are not perfect.

Building blocks: accept yourself, believe in yourself, compliment yourself, forgive yourself, reward yourself, discover yourself, acknowledge yourself, and spiritualize yourself.

Believe correctly, choose your friends wisely, behave consistently in all matters of life. Then and only then will you be able to see just how worthy you are, and realize your full potential in life and be able to utilize it.

Be proud of who you are. Put your past behind you. You have learned from it. Step forward and be the true self-confident you.

Balance

Wouldn't it be nice to have a balanced life? Study the five key areas of life:

1 Inner strength, consisting of self-esteem, confidence, peace of mind, spiritual contentment
2 Health and wellness consisting of health, fitness, eating habits
3 Communications/relationships, consisting of friendships (marriage/partner), colleagues
4 Career/achievement, consisting of full potential, job satisfaction
5 Time and financial freedom, consisting of time for yourself, time for family, money to do what you want to do.

Think about how you can improve upon categories with the low scores. What can you do to improve them?

Responsibility

To reclaim our freedom is to take responsibility for who we are now. We cannot keep blaming our parents or teachers of the past. Blaming others keeps us stuck in the past. We cannot change what happened to us, but we can stop how it is affecting us today. No one is making us act or think as we are now. That is our responsibility. The key quality we need for personal excellence is the ongoing act of taking responsibility for creating the circumstances in our lifes. Achieving greatness in life requires accepting responsibility. The areas of life we must accept responsibility for are our thoughts, feelings, relationships, health, talents, purpose, reactions to life's challenges, and our past.

Love

Very few people feel enough love in their lives. The world has become a rather loveless place. Without love, we might be active, but we are hysterical. Most of us are violent people—not physically but emotionally. This world we live in has brought us up in an absence of love, and with that, fear has taken over.

Children need love. At what age are we to stop needing it?

The greatest sin we commit against each other is cold indifference. You do not need to shoot a man to kill him. Just ignore him and he will die of love malnutrition. Love and happiness are contentment of the soul. All that the universal law wants us to do is to love and be happy. It is up to you—you have to do it for yourself.

There are fives ways to help you to happiness:

1. Be grateful for your life as it may be.
2. Seek improvement in your life by every means available.
3. Today think of achieving something worthwhile for you and your loved ones.
4. Plunge yourself totally into an active, giving life.
5. Live one day at a time. Now is the time to be, and tomorrow will hold much more happiness for you.

Do we trust the power that holds the sun, moon, and stars together? Why, then, don't we trust that same power to handle the circumstances of our relatively small lives? We have been given talents and responsibilities, and we have been instructed to use them to make this world of ours a better place to live. When we surrender to the universal power, we let go of making things happen in our lives. Our subconscious mind then acts on our behalf. The energy force of life will always respond to our requests—provided we make our contribution to life first!

Goal setting

So many of us are so busy that we find it difficult to stop long enough to ponder the fact that we confuse activity with accomplishment. Most of us spend more time planning a vacation than we spend planning our lives! Why should you have goals?

- They keep you focused.
- They give you something to shoot for.
- They keep solution ideas flowing.
- They give you enthusiasm.
- They chart your course in life.
- They give you purpose.
- They help you stay productive.
- They give you clarity in decision making.
- They provide a measuring stick for considering ideas.
- They help you stay organized.
- They help you sell yourself to others.
- They help you judge your productivity and effectiveness.

This is the formula for achieving your goals: Start with a burning desire. Write your goal in the present tense. Write down the benefits. Break your long-term goals into sub-goals. Write down any obstacles you may encounter. Make a checklist of your daily sub-goals.

Stand tall, step out, dream the impossible dream, and go for it. You are in the driver's seat of your life.

Affirmations

Our birthright is self-fulfilment, joy, and happiness. We cannot avoid pain and conflict in life, but, with tools for working through tough times, we can bring ourselves back to a state of inner harmony.

Affirmations and self-talk are firm messages spoken repeatedly to ourselves to reinforce new beliefs we are trying to create. There is a gestation period of 21 days for these new thoughts to take effect.

The golden rules of affirmations are: they should be in the present tense; they should be short and concise; they should be said as if you already have it; they must be positive.

Remember, you become what you think about.

Building career transitions through career volunteering and critical thinking processes

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Introduction

In the Canadian workforce, the number of unemployed mature workers in the 1990s has more than doubled since the 1960s and 1970s. Only 54% of these unemployed are counted in national statistics. From a survey completed in Calgary by Cornerstone Communication, it was found of those workers over 45 years of age that over 52% had been out of work for over two years. Of the total sample (N = 67+) 52% of the unemployed were receiving Unemployment Insurance; 13% were receiving Social Assistance, and 34% were unaccounted for. The Centre of International Statistics reports that many Canadians age 45 and over are facing severe economic hardships due to joblessness. Fifty percent of the unemployed mature workers have families and incomes below Canada's "Low Income Cut-Off" (poverty level). (p. 21) Schellenberg (1994) notes that because of economic factors and other related issues, many of the unemployed over 45 become discouraged workers. Discouraged workers are those who abandon their job search because they believe no suitable jobs are available; these discouraged workers are not included in official estimates. (Schellenberg 1994, p. 16) The mature discouraged worker (MDW) has been unemployed for longer periods of time and are likely to remain so. Greater employment opportunities for these people are urgently needed. (Schellenberg 1994, p.1)

Many have special needs because of their perceived lack of alternatives, and are thereby confused and have given up hope. They have, in a sense, been permanently dislocated. Intervention is required to stop this downward spiral. Programs that deal with the MDWs' emotions and coping skills, and build confidence in their skills and abilities as well as their decision-making processes, are needed. The heavy burden on the public purse in terms of unemployment insurance and social-assistance payments to these unemployed workers is fast reaching a critical level in the 1990s. This whole area sorely needs to be addressed.

Purpose

Two primary psychological techniques are generally employed for intervention in career-problem cases. (Spokane 1990) These two techniques include guided fantasy and skills analysis which encompass the systematic review of the clients' work-related skills. These models describe the essential elements in the clients' processes (that is, hope and mobilization) and lead the counselling process in facilitating scientific inquiry with them. Hope and mobilization are seen as major elements in most career-intervention processes.

It is also important to recognize that the internal processes of both feelings and situational effects need to be considered when addressing career interventions with older workers. By looking more closely at elements related to mature workers and their situations, it is necessary to encompass a larger model for career intervention. The older unemployed discouraged workers have a sense of disorientation not only about themselves but about to the changing working world they find themselve part of. Unless their internal states of disorientation and their view of existing realities are dealt with, they will quickly lose momentum and regress. It is important to bring out well-being, clear thinking, and optional career choices for individuals who are older and have been unemployed for a longer period of time (36 weeks *versus* 17 weeks for younger counterparts).

Unemployed mature workers need information and insights about the new reality of Canada's economy, and assistance in dealing with this changing reality of work. This changing reality represents a new paradigm for mature workers that many fail to recognize or understand. Finding work in the 1990s demands a great deal of self-reliance, creativity, and problem-solving ability. In addition, these mature unemployed individuals are often left without a sense of community of support. A community of support is necessary in establishing purpose, identity, and contacts for enacting re-employment. Information and support must also be seen as key ingredients in enacting re-employment.

Unemployed mature workers need to have positive feelings both about themselves, and their skills and abilities. More often than not, these clients need a bridging program to assist them in regaining their confidence as productive workers. Bandura's theory (1982) of skill efficacy is concerned with one's beliefs that a given task or behaviour can be successfully performed.

Bandura also states that "people avoid activities that exceed their coping capabilities but undertake those activities that they judge themselves capable of managing." As a result, self-efficacy is basically concerned with one's beliefs about one's own capabilities. (Bandura 1986, p. 123) Belief in one's abilities is shaped by (1) acquisition and application of skills, (2) reinforcement from others, (3) community support, and (4) additional support. Thus it becomes important to develop positive concepts related to skills acquisitions in order for adequate career transitions to occur. Positive concepts of self-efficacy lead to openness of exploration and, therefore, to the development of more alternatives, which eventually result in self-renewal.

Career volunteering can be a supportive, non-threatening environment for the older unemployed, and can promote positive feelings of again being a productive worker. As clients are given positive feedback about their skills and abilities while volunteering, they become more confident and open to trying new skills and taking on more difficult tasks. Often this process of building skills leads clients into retraining programs or other educational pursuits.

This new affirmation of enhancement of skills acts as a springboard to increase confidence not only in their skills but also in their confidence in being valuable and necessary for today's workforce. It is indeed necessary to develop and revise these beliefs in the self-efficacy of skills if re-employment is to occur.

Researchers such as Pearson (1988) and the Bridging Program in Britain found that increasing confidence in unemployed clients enable clients to more clearly see their strengths and discover their transferable skills. Bandura (1986) goes on to state that self-efficacy expectations vary on the dimensions of strength—that is, the confidence that people have in their estimates of a task and the level of difficulty of that task that they feel capable of performing. One mature client was quoted as saying she felt the volunteer component of the program enabled her to respect her life experiences and discover her strengths and abilities. She felt more confident in her life context, rather than falling victim to ageism and believing she was no longer valued in today's workforce. This rediscovered confidence enabled her to actively engage in a job-search and to begin searching in the hidden job market. Clients who are in the process of changing to new occupations discover their transferable skills and gain confidence in their abilities to handle new experiences associated with a different career. For example, computer managers have seen the transferability of their management skills when working in a new setting, such as developing and administering programs for tourism. These client illustrations demonstrate that as clients' feelings of self-efficacy increase, so does their confidence to learn new skills, as well as their capability to utilize transferable skills in a new context.

Two models dominate career-development theories today: the behaviouristic model and the counselling model. These two models have generated various programs for employment and re-employment in the past two decades. The behaviouristic model is very goal-oriented and deals with matching certain individual behaviours to specific occupations. (Holland's 1963 model) In comparison, Super's model (1980) focuses on external factors (others, and society in general) in the development of the career self. What both theories neglect is the internal states of the individual. If employment, especially re-employment, is to occur, surely the internal process of personal growth, choice, willingness, and personal adaptability must be considered important in making appropriate career decisions. The organization of the self and the environment leads clients to substantiate their view of reality or their acquired belief systems.

The use of the Tiedman and O'Hare model (1963) extends our understanding of the organization of the self in relationship to the environment. This construction helps people assess and define their career direction. By understanding the basis of how individuals define their own career we locate the degree of openness they have toward a change of career. The degree of openness is a function of the person's belief system. (Brown, Brook, and Associates 1990, p. 310).

The internal states of individuals involve coping skills, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities. Schlossberg (1989) found that people who feel overwhelmed with life stresses often limit themselves to only one or two options when confronted with problems. Exploring alternatives regarding the self in relation to career options is important before any transitions can occur.

Older unemployed clients also need practice in solving problems in a group context. That is, once a problem is presented by classmates, other class members can present various alternatives, and a trained facilitator can lead the class through appropriate decision-making exercises. The Career Volunteer Placement Program (CVPP) clients state that the case-studies presented as part of the classroom instruction are extremely helpful in exploring alternatives and making alternate decisions regarding the job search and career choices. One can assume that rehearsal of problem-solving exercises can be helpful in solving industry problems in an interview. Older unemployed clients again need to have confidence in their problem-solving and decision-making abilities before feeling empowered to explore career alternatives.

In order for clients to become autonomous decision makers, they must be taught to be self-directed. Self-directed learning involves active inquiry, independence, and individuality in a learning task. Researchers such as Rathborne (1971) have stated that "the learner is regarded as a self-activated maker of meaning, an active agent in his own learning process. He is not one to whom things merely happen…In a very fundamental way each learner is his own agent…a self-reliant, independent, self-actualizing individual who is capable of forming his own concepts and learning." (Candy 1991, p. 271) Only when clients are again led to have confidence in their internal thinking abilities and problem solving can they be expected to make appropriate decisions.

Therefore, teaching these clients must not be seen as merely transmitting knowledge, but rather, it must be seen as a matter of actively seeking meaning from (or even imposing meaning on) events. Coping strategies that involve problem-solving abilities regarding the self or the situation are necessary for transitions to occur. As clients regain confidence in their thinking abilities, they become open to career-transition options and become active agents of their own career-development processes.

The classroom instruction in topics related to job searching are in actuality teaching thinking skills through critical analysis. Problem situations which are presented to class clients so that they must use their problem-solving abilities to generate alternatives and pose appropriate actions. In this process, however, a number of employment barriers invariably arise. Therefore, a skilled facilitator must also use group-counselling techniques to work through psychological and personal barriers that inhibit problem-solving. Instruction promotes an atmosphere of "learning" conversation with the facilitator, who leads with a series of questions that vary from simple knowledge-based to complex analysis, synthesis, and evaluative ends. The facilitator enables clients to be creative in their problem-solving, and generate new and often untried methods of dealing with career or job-search information. This critical thinking and reflection-in-action enables clients to feel in control of their own problems and regain confidence in their thinking and decision making.

The social forces that influence clients' lives and inhibit their autonomy can be related to the number of perceived options for re-employment; confidence is needed in one's ability to make appropriate decisions about options. (Meizirow and Associates 1990, p. 102)

A difficult problem for re-employment for mature workers is the thought of transfer occupations. If clients have not been able to identify their own transfer skills and use these skills in a new environment, transfer-occupation training is seen as futile. It is through self-assessment, skills enhancement, confidence in one's own skills, and appropriate career decisions that effective renewal in a different career is able to take place.

The career volunteer placement program

The CVPP is the largest program at Opportunity 45, at present a nonprofit society mandated to assist mature workers over 45 to find employment. As the fastest-growing program within the organization, the CVPP offers a unique feature for clients to use in their job-search. This program requires clients to participate in volunteer work in addition to learning and applying job-search techniques and strategies.

Each facilitator conducts an initial interview with each potential client with a view to identifying barriers, needs, and guidelines, for an appropriate match between client transfer skills and volunteer site needs. Potential CVPP clients who voice a strong reluctance to participate in volunteer work during the initial interview assist in the screening by excluding themselves from the program. The facilitator emphasizes the reasons for taking on volunteer work for eight hours per week. Some of these reasons are (1) collaboration with volunteer-site personnel to extend client network, (2) practice of transfer skills learned during past work experience in a new context, (3) learning new skills, and (4) practice in work-related problem identification and problem solving. After this first interview, a second interview is conducted by the CVPP volunteer placement coordinator, who refines the matching of transfer skills with volunteer-site needs through examining the client's résumé and negotiating three to four possible matches with each client. The clients are then required to telephone each volunteer site and request an interview with the volunteer supervisor, as they would do in conducting an actual job search. In effect, at this point these clients are practising informational interviewingm which requires care in questioning and analysis of the appropriateness of the volunteer position.

Each facilitator visits each volunteer site twice during the eight-week period: first, to identify skills being used by the client and to assist in solving any problems arising for client and volunteer supervisor, and then, in a second visit, to assess the client's productivity and problem-solving skills. In general, volunteer supervisors report that CVPP volunteers are their most effective volunteers, because (1) they bring depth of experience to the volunteer job, and (2) the facilitator's visits ensure that skills are being used and that problem identification and problem solving are being practised.

In the classroom, the facilitator works to provide a transactional relationship between content and process with the 20 clients selected for the program. The content and the learning engaged in by clients during the eight weeks are continuously interrelated: problem solving is set out as an essential skill in finding the best possible job within the time provided, and evidence of problem solving is monitored and assessed both at the volunteer site and during the five hours of class time per week. Thus, the CVPP curriculum is an integration of practical re-employment information and thinking processes based on current, valid, educational theories: the presence of integrated content and learning processes makes it possible to turn problem identification and problem solving back to the clients and requires the clients to practise critical and creative thinking as they begin to investigate job-search problems.

The content of the eight-week program includes: (1) analysis and discussion of myths and realities related to the labour market in the '90s, (2) establishment of a job-search action plan with the program professional counsellor, (3) analysis and discussion of the importance of attitude during job searching, and (4) initiation into the concept and practice of a self-directed job search. Methods used to support the understanding of the contents just described are résumé analysis and revision, cold calling, and writing and sharing work-experience narratives to demonstrate their problem-solving skills. These narratives, or STARR (Situation, Task, Action, Result, Reward) stories, are practised during simulated employment interviews in reply to questions such as, "Tell me how you would deal with a difficult customer..."

Midway through the eight weeks, each facilitator conducts a one-on-one interview with each client to revise and re-establish an action plan for obtaining employment. Technique practices include a number of networking strategies such as composing and expanding a contact list, researching locally-owned companies, using networking cards, and interviewing simulation using the Behaviour Descriptive Interviewing model, the Classic Interview model, and the Information Interview model. The underlying theory related to critical thinking is put into practice immediately by clients, as they begin on the first day to question and articulate their own beliefs about the phenomenon of work. Self-questioning of beliefs and attitudes occurs on the first day as the facilitator helps clients to ask and answer not only what they believe, but also why they hold these particular beliefs, and whether they are in their own self-interest during the job search.

This practice of critical thinking continues during discussions of attitude, and again during and after a Self-Directed Search Assessment using the Holland model of interest identification. At this point, critical thinking is applied as a way of coming to a degree of self-understanding about interests and preferences at work in the clients' belief system as they search for work. Coming to a point of self-understanding helps to lay the groundwork for clients to begin developing the attitude of self-efficacy that is the centerpiece of this program.

Critical thinking is not divorced from creative thinking in this program. As has been shown, the writing and telling of work experience narratives calls on clients to recall problems and then tell them in the most interesting way possible. The facilitator's job at this point is to draw a problem situation out of the clients' past work experience, and to help to identify and describe the problem. The next step is to listen to the narrative (or STARR story) and then assist each client to compose two to three stories using a sequence of descriptive sentences that tell of a different problematic situation (S), a task to be carried out (T), the action taken by the client (A), the result (R), and finally, the reward (R). The facilitator helps each client to compose and revise each narrative so that the telling is entertaining as well as informative. Thus creative thinking is brought into play in transaction with critical thinking.

Parallel to the telling of the work narratives, the clients undertake résumé revision, which highlights their problem-solving skills together with transfer skills. In this way, the résumé becomes a readable summary that emphasizes what clients have to offer as problem solvers to prospective employers rather than simply listing the major events of a past work history.

Effective instruction requires that a facilitator understand learning as a process of social reconstruction as well as cognitive reconstruction. Self-efficacy is developed as clients come to understand themselves as social beings capable of changing their attitudes and of being problem solvers: both the cognitive and the affective domains are involved in taking charge of their own learning, and in becoming aware of the most effective ways to solve their own problems regarding unemployment. At the end of eight weeks, most clients are aware that in order to find employment they must accept jobs that are less than ideal, or they become aware that they need additional education, or they tailor their résumés to very specific employment that will make use of at least some of their primary transfer skills. By the end of eight weeks, as many as 65 to 70% of participating clients have found either full-time or part-time employment, and frequently by the end of six months 80 to 100% of the remaining clients have found work.

After the eight-week program is officially over, those clients who have not found work continue to meet in what we have chosen to call Success Teams. These groups meet once every two weeks and receive group counselling, which was initiated and maintained during the second half of the eight-week program. During this time, networking is extended, and it is during this time that clients research and zero in on their educational needs: this could mean, for example, specialized computer training or practical short-term technical education in oil-and-gas production accounting.

In summary, delivery of this program entails practice in critical and creative thinking by both facilitator and client: in effect, the facilitator, like an effective teacher, acts as a model who demonstrates how to think both critically and creatively. Central to this modeling on the part of the facilitator is the practice of reflection-in-action and the practice of initiating and supporting a "learning" conversation.

If the facilitator can demonstrate an ability to identify and solve problems caused by barriers, such as the attitude that being over 45 is a barrier to employment, clients will more readily be able to experience themselves as problem solvers. More important, perhaps, if a facilitator can act out in plain view the method of analysis that is central to critical thinking, clients may more readily understand how that process can be adapted to their own needs. Reflection on problems encountered in volunteer work, for example, and during class time with clients, in individual and in group situations, helps to make it more clear how a problem can be identified and solved.

When the facilitator is fully conscious of the analysis and inferencing required for critical thinking, these methods can be opened to the clients, who can be included through careful questioning and conversation. Conversation is essential to the success of this program, but the conversation must be a "learning conversation," which is encouraging and supporting talk within the whole group about each client's job-search and volunteer work. Learning conversation entails gradually moving the locus of control of the discussion from the facilitator to the clients. At the centre of this conversation is usually a print and/or visual text—a case-study involving a successful interview, a sample résumé or broadcast letter, a series of statements by employers about what they look for in their potential employees, or an overhead showing a graph or diagram. The implication here, of course, is that the facilitator needs to be literate in a multitude of ways, and also be aware of the importance of initiating and maintaining conversation that gets to the bedrock of understanding in each client during a discussion. An eight-week program does not allow for extended conversations during class, but the small number of clients in each group does enable conversation to continue at the volunteer site, after or before classes, and over the phone. The heart of the learning conversation is careful preparation of questions by the facilitator that move the locus of control of conversation into the group and out of the hands of the facilitator.

With practice, a facilitator can enable this shift to occur by the sixth or seventh week of the course. By the end of eight weeks, the majority of the clients begin to emerge as confident potential employees within a network that continues long after the program has come to a close.

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Building tomorrow's organizations today

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Emerging structures

Organizations are evolving from stable environments to ones in which change is pervasive and omnipresent. Traditionally, large organizations have kept a rigid, hierarchical, conical shape. These are beginning to transform as work teams become self-directed, autonomous entities, nourished by the parent organization. When a unit ceases to be a core product or service, it can simply be snipped off to become an agency, exist in its own right. The metaphor of a spider plant is used for this growth and separation of pod that eventually becomes a partner organism (Morgan, 1995).

In the private sector, separation occurs more smoothly than in public-sector institutions. There it is hampered by cumbersome and nebulous mechanisms. When the public sector streamlines processes so that they are easily understood and accessible to potential pod organizations, more and more pods will emerge and flourish.

In smaller organizations, internal change and development occur as in an amoeba. Keeping the core values and products in mind, the organization is malleable and fluid in its reaction to the marketplace. It can change its shape (focus) at will, without the shackles experienced by its larger counterparts.

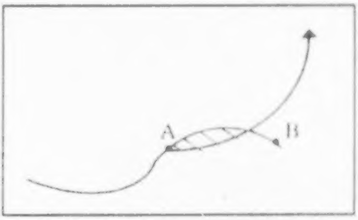
Both large and small corporations need the ability to quickly change their shape in response to new technologies or shifting priorities and markets. The workforce must be able to respond to those needs also.

One positive impact of organizational evolution is that it will stimulate and heighten the ability of individuals to live up to their potential, and use their talents in a multiplicity of tasks and learning opportunities.

Organizations of tomorrow

"The past might not be the guide to the future." Handy uses the Sigmoid Curve to depict the waxing and waning of organizations, individuals, products, and services. In the past, the time passing between points A and B of organizational change was usually fairly long. Alas, as the pace of change accelerates, every sigmoid curve shortens. Enterprises must be prepared to start a new curve before the first one deteriorates.

Sigmoid Curve



Point A is the place to begin to consider change. However, at that point the messages received are usually positive (growth, resources, well-received products, good marketing strategy). People are not conditioned to consider change before negative signals begin, and it is usually at *Point B that the impetus for change* happens, as all the positive signs are disappearing and negative ones are surfacing. Therefore, organizations have the challenge of continuously building a new future while maintaining the present. This second-curve thinking, writes Handy, keeps people curious, sceptical, and inventive.

How does the corporation support second-curve thinking? Personal development will replace employee development. Organizations that encourage ongoing learning will be the most successful. Personal mastery and hardiness in workers will be highly valued. Companies will reward risk.

Career development is the compost in the soil of these organizations, an essential nutrient for growing up hardy, self-directed, and self-managed employees and teams. If the future of organizations lies in their ability to create and nurture the workforce, then what are the essentials to be done today to prepare for tomorrow?

Practical to-do's in career development

The role of the career-development practitioner has evolved to meet client needs (and organizationally related needs). A key role the practitioner plays is building client confidence and self-worth. The practitioner then becomes partner and ally in the transition of organizations, because the outcomes of career-development counselling mirror what the new organization requires its employees to become: adaptable, self-managed, confident, passionate, self-initiating, self-directed, and comfortable in multiple roles.

Individual and group activities

Activities can be performed by the client in a self-directed way and discussed with the counsellor. They can also be carried out in workshops, although people may choose to work on their own and not share personal information. Such activities can be:

- Create a portfolio of assets, skills, attributes, values, accomplishments, skills, and knowledge.
- Develop a personal vision.
- Determine personal, learning, and work goals.
- Explore barriers that hinder goal attainment.
- Position oneself in the work dynamic.
- Enhance ability to manage change and transition.
- Build relationships to support implementation of strategies.

Small group activities

These can be introduced to teams and work units as workshops or brown-bag lunches. They differ from personalized interventions in that the locus of control is group driven, the focus become the cohesiveness of the group, particularly in interventions that are team building.

Team-oriented components

- Affirmation of team vision, mission, values, goals, business lines.
- Articulation of a group talent-base of strengths, goals, work preferences, knowledge, and interests.
- Assessment of personal meaning for each member and aligning to a group vision.
- Identification of skills, knowledge gaps, and learning strategies for the group.
- Cultivation of leadership and followers skills.
- Exploration of individual and group assumptions (beliefs).
- Sharing and celebration of accomplishments.

Short workshops or brown-bag lunch topics

- Personal financial management (the why, not the how-to).
- Exploring radical change in the world of work (Magnusson, Day, Redekopp 1995).
- Creative decision making (Gelatt 1991).
- Career beliefs (Krumboltz 1991).
- Building prior learning assessment portfolios (Sansregret 1993).
- Action planning and positioning for opportunities.

Learning as a touchstone

Knowledge workers will remain in organizations where learning is accessible. Employees who are confident, curious, and energized tend to be less averse to risk. Moreover, they can bend with the winds of change and are adept at second-curve thinking.

Having a learning model that is employee-driven could involve a clash of priorities as downsizing organizations slash budgets, firm up training policies, restrict employee mobility, and limit the scope of work to essentials. The very act of narrowing learning opportunities may send the most knowledgeable and desirable workers packing for a greener learning pasture. Corporate courage is required to emphasize employee programs in the midst of budget slashing.

As the old social contract offering employees security is replaced by one that offers learning, organizations need to understand how learning occurs in adults, and develop strategies to create a spirit of lifelong learning at all levels of the organization. The learning culture cannot be imposed, it must be grown.

Learning is not training—its application is broader. Recent studies in training schemes in the U.S. and Sweden have concluded that training yields dubious results in lowering unemployment and increasing earnings (*Guardian Weekly*, Jan.14, 1996), at least in any way that can be measured nationally. The missing piece might be the overlooking of adult learning principles. When learning becomes training that is driven by the organization, it is less meaningful to the learner, and therefore the learner is less engaged.

The Conduct Learning Model

The Conduct Learning Model is a simple and effective model that organizations can introduce to foster a learning culture for their workers, and is the conduct model of self-directed, self-initiated learning. It can be used individually or in team settings where group learning can be accelerated.

Phases of the Conduct Model

Learning

Individuals learn the skill through workshops, formal, distance, or self-directed learning, library research, or experiential situations.

Entrench

They practise or perform the skill both in and out of the workplace to hone and achieve a comfort level.

Enhance

The skill is perfected through advanced programs, conversations with experts, reading, or joining an association or discussion group.

Elaborate

The skill, knowledge, and techniques acquired are transmitted to others—co-workers, family, friends. Articulating knowledge entrenches further, allowing individuals to celebrate the knowledge and to be a conduit for it. Elaboration has a number of by-products: increased self-worth, affirmation of passion or excitement for the skill/knowledge, facility for teaching or coaching others, developing comfort in public speaking.

Organizations in which the conduct model is entrenched are true learning environments where the practice of the skill is valued and celebrated. The challenge for the organization is to allow learners time to impart the knowledge. Brown-bag lunches or coffee breaks are effective times for people to take 20 minutes to learn from a co-worker.

Summary

Organizations will change their shape and focus to reflect economic realities. Career-development practitioners have a vital role in assisting employees and teams to grow and adapt in a way that meets their personal learning needs, and tangibly reinforces their value to the organization.

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Career services follow-up survey

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Introduction

In 1994 a report titled "Career and Employment Counselling in Canada" (Conger, Hiebert, and Hong-Farrell 1994) identified that counselling services are lacking a systematic process in evaluation. Increasing emphasis on the accountability of resources and time for clients necessitates an evaluation of the counselling process. Recipients of counselling need to play an active role in determining what effect the counselling has had in their lives. To address the need for evaluation for the Career Centre at Wascana Institute, a survey was developed and administered to clients who had utilized the services. The goal of the survey was to obtain feedback regarding quality and relevancy of the various services accessed by these clients. These services included career and educational information, formal assessment tools, and workshops focused on career planning and career counselling. Demographic information was collected from the clients, and the services that were utilized by the clients were identified. The services were rated by the clients using a Likert scale. This paper will be discussing the results of the survey and implications for the counselling delivered.

Objectives of the survey

The objectives of the survey are (1) to assess the quality and relevancy of the services provided, and (2) to identify needed changes in the programming offered to the clients.

Methodology

The survey was developed to obtain quantitative data from users of the services at the career centre. The types of questions developed for the counselling service section were based upon the results obtained by Nevo. (1990) The survey was conducted from February to March 1995 and data were collected until June 1995.

Data for the survey were obtained using a questionnaire administered to several groups: clients who had used the services in the past three years (mail-out), clients who had participated in workshops, users of the resource centre, users seeking individual counselling, and clients interviewed by telephone. In total, 500 survey questionnaires were distributed. Of these 500 questionnaires, 241 responded for a response rate of 48%.

The data were input and prepared into a Lotus spreadsheet, and the analysis was performed using SPSS statistics software. Analysis of the results was done on the total responses received and based on the type of service used.

Literature search

An extensive literature search on the topic of adult client satisfaction and career services received was performed prior to the survey administration. Nevo (1990) conducted a study of counsellees, examining the effectiveness of career counselling by using evaluation questionnaires. The results of this study demonstrated that 75% of the counsellees (n = 79) were satisfied with the career counselling they received. Nevo (1990) found a positive relationship between the satisfaction expressed by the client with the career counselling, and the perceived view that the counsellor had assisted in making a choice about the career alternative, in decision making, in identifying skills and interests, and in organizing thinking. Wrenn (1988) indicated the importance of the counsellor assisting the client in building self-esteem by identifying the skills and assets that an individual brings to the career-decision process. Stone (1982) emphasized that the basic life orientation of the client will affect the level of satisfaction with counselling.

Kirschner, Hoffman, and Hill (1994) found that helpful counsellor behaviours for career counselling included giving support, providing information, clarifying, reinforcing change, and challenging. In a study by Holland, Magoon, and Spokane (1981), the fundamental counselling elements that were helpful in a career intervention included opportunity for cognitive rehearsal of career aspirations, exposure to occupational information, provision of social support for change, and the development of cognitive structures for organizing the new information.

Oliver and Spokane (1988) conducted a meta-analysis of 240 treatment-control comparisons that were based upon 58 studies and included 7,311 subjects. In the study by Oliver et al., it was found that classes focused upon career choice or development were most effective but needed the most number of hours of intervention and the most sessions. Individual career sessions resulted in more client gain per hour or session. Career-planning workshops or structured groups were the least costly, but were less effective than the individual counselling. The workshops included career exploration, self-help materials, and computer-assisted information.

Results of the survey

A number of services offered through the career centre were examined in the survey. The services offered were: resource centre, workshops, interview skills, resumé service, counselling services, and career assessments (including Strong Interest Inventory, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, and General Aptitude Test Battery).

For each service, specific statements were made, to which the respondent indicated the degree of agreement or disagreement based on the following scale: (5) strongly agree; (4) agree; (3) undecided; (2) disagree; (1) strongly disagree; (0) not applicable.

Gender of respondents

The survey was completed by a total of 241 respondents. There were 237 valid cases who reported their gender, 30% who indicated gender was male, and 70% female. Table 1 shows the distribution by gender use of each of the service.

Table 1 Gender by Percent Using Each of the Services

	# of Valid Cases	Male	Female
Total Sample	n=237	30%	70%
Service:			
Resource Centre	n=137	36%	64%
Workshops	n=121	26%	74%
Interview Skills	n= 27	44%	56%
Resume Service	n= 37	40%	60%
Counselling	n=107	29%	71%
Career Assessment	n= 89	33%	67%

Age distribution of the respondents

Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were aged 18 to 39. The age group 25 to 39 represented 54% of the sample, and 30% of the respondents were aged 40 to 64.

Current employment status

Two hundred and thirty-four respondents indicated their employment status, of which 60% were employed, and 37% unemployed. Of the 144 employed, 42% were employed full-time, 29% part-time, and 8% self-employed, while 21% did not indicate their type of employment. Of the 90 unemployed respondents, 56% indicated they were looking for work, 9% indicated they were not looking for work, and 35% of the respondents gave no indication.

Eighty-six respondents responded to the question that asked if they thought they were overqualified for their current position. Forty-three percent thought they were.

Table 2 Current Employment Status

Status	# of Valid Cases	Percent
Employed:	144	60%
Full-time	61	42%
Part-time	42	29%
Self-Employed	11	8%
No answer	30	21%
Unemployed:	90	37%
Looking for work	50	56%
Not looking for work	8	9%
No answer	32	35%
No Answer	7	3%
Total Valid Cases	241	100%

Analysis by type of service provided

Resource centre

One hundred and forty-one respondents indicated they used the resource centre. The resource centre was most utilized by respondents in the 25 to 39 age group (54%), followed by respondents in the 40 to 64 age group (29%). Thirty-six percent of the users were male and 64% were female. The majority of employed clients who used the resource centre were employed full-time (57%), while 35% were employed part-time. Fifty-two percent of respondents who indicated they were unemployed and looking for work used the resource centre. It appears that both employed and unemployed users were actively searching for career options and employment opportunities.

Eighty-two percent of respondents reported the information needed was in the resource centre; 90% agreed or strongly agreed that the information was easily accessible.

Sixty percent of resource-centre respondents answering the question about the Personal Career Directions Program were satisfied with the information; 30% were undecided.

Workshops

One hundred and twenty-one people indicated participation in workshops. The workshops available included the Career Planning Workshop, Using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator to Make Career Choices, Enhancing Your Self-Esteem, and Confidence and Managing Stress Effectively. Length of each workshop was six to nine hours and would be scheduled over two to three sessions.

Seventy-four percent of the participants were female and 26% were male. Fifty percent of the participants were aged 25 to 39. Sixty-five percent were employed, and of those employed 41% were employed full-time. Of the 31% who were unemployed, 67% were looking for work. Forty-six percent felt they were overqualified for their current position. Table 3 provides additional information on those respondents participating in workshops.

Table 3 Workshop Services

Categories	# of Valid Cases		Percent	
Gender:				
Male	31		26%	
Female	90		74%	
Total	121		100%	
Age:				
18-24	22		18%	
25-39	61		50%	
40-64	37		31%	
No answer	1		1%	
Total	121		100%	
Employment Status:				
Employed:	79		65%	
Full-time		32		41%
Part-time		24		30%
Self-employed		6		8%
No answer		17		21%
Unemployed:	37		31%	
Looking for work		25		67%
Not looking for work		5		14%
No answer		7		19%
No answer	5		4%	
Total	121		100%	
Overqualified:				
Yes	24		46%	
No	28		54%	
Total	52		100%	

Two questions in the survey referred specifically to workshops. Ninety percent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the overall presentation was excellent; 84% indicated that the workshop was useful in assisting career decision-making. Based upon a large percentage of respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing, it appears that the workshops are filling a need for information and self-exploration.

Interview skills

Twenty-seven percent respondents indicated they had used Interview Skills services. Fifty-six percent were 40 to 64 years of age. Thirty percent were from 25 to 39 years old. Forty-eight percent of respondents who used this service were employed. Unemployed respondents also accounted for 48%. Of the 13 respondents who were employed, 38% indicated they were employed full-time and 15% indicated part-time (46% gave no indication). Of the 13 unemployed respondents, 69% indicated they were looking for work. Sixty-three percent of the users of the interview skills also used the resource centre, 74% used the résumé service, and 74% used the counselling services. Over 75% of respondents using the interview-skills service found the information helpful. Seventy-four percent agreed or strongly agreed that the role-playing helped in preparing for the interview.

Résumé service

Associated with interview skills is résumé service. Thirty-seven respondents to the questionnaire indicated they had utilized the résumé service. Characteristics of these users, as well as those using the interview-skills service, are summarized in table 4.

Table 4 Users of the Résumé Service and Interview Skills

		Resume Service		Interview	
		No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Gender:	Male	15	41%	12	44%
	Female	22	59%	15	56%
	Total	37	100%	27	100%
Age:	under 18	0	0%	1	4%
	18 - 24	1	3%	3	11%
	25 - 39	14	38%	8	30%
	40 - 64	22	59%	15	56%
	Total	37	100%	27	100%
Employment:	Employed	21	57%	13	48%
	Unemployed	15	40%	13	48%
	No answer	1	3%	1	4%
	Total	37	100%	27	100%

Users of the résumé service and the interview skills were primarily concerned with acquiring skills that would assist them in their job search and help them to be more marketable. Finding further training and developing a plan to carry through with their plans also appeared to be important.

Counselling service

The counselling service was provided in a one-to-one setting. All aspects of the counselling are guided by the ethics as set out by the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association. Of the 107 counsellees, 71% were female, and 48% were from the ages 25 to 39. Sixty-seven percent of respondents indicated they were employed. Of the 72 employed respondents, 42% were employed full-time. Fifty-two percent of unemployed respondents were looking for work. The counsellees used the resource centre, workshops, and the career assessments.

The counselling process involved an intake interview and an analysis of the client's needs and appropriate services to be accessed. The services could include the career assessments and workshops. In some cases, clients were specifically interested in the résumé service or the interview-skills service. In a follow-up session, the counsellor would explore the results of the inventories and the abilities test. An evaluation of their implications and further exploration of occupational information in the resource centre was made. An analysis of options and an overall summary would be carried out. Some clients would proceed to informational interviews. The theoretical approach of the counsellors was eclectic.

Responses to specific counselling services are summarized in table 5. Over 75% of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with each of the questions. The average response was agreement with each statement where the mean value is between 3.5 and 4.5, and strong agreement where the mean value is greater than 4.5.

Table 5 Counselling Services

Question	# of Valid Cases	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean Value
Counsellor listened attentively	99	37%	60%	4.6
Understanding of feelings	99	46%	43%	4.3
Problem solving and decisions	97	50%	35%	4.0
Skills and Abilities clarified	96	44%	33%	4.0
Accessibility - timely & prompt	98	44%	42%	4.2
Expectations satisfied	97	34%	45%	4.2

The question regarding skills and abilities 16% of the respondents undecided. A large number of respondents appeared to be unclear about what the question was asking. The question regarding the expectations of counselling being satisfied left 13% undecided. A hypothesis for the response is that clients were not clear about the outcomes desired.

As part of the counselling process, the career assessments would have been interpreted for the client. Forty-two percent of respondents (n = 76) agreed and 48% strongly agreed that the career assessments were explained clearly and completely.

Career assessments

Career assessments included standardized testing instruments. The Strong Interest Inventory was used to assess clients' occupational interests. This instrument was also used as a part of the career-planning workshop. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator assessed personality type and was used as part of the career-planning workshop, which examined how personality type would influence career choices. The General Aptitude Test Battery assessed aptitudes, and the information was used by the client and counsellor to generate potential careers, to research further, taking into consideration other factors such as interests and personality type. Eighty-nine clients indicated they had utilized the career assessment service. Table 6 illustrates the percentage of respondents to each question who agreed or strongly agreed. The average response is also indicated where all mean values correspond to Agree.

Table 6 Career Assessments

Question	# of Valid Cases	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean Value
Assessments	89			
Aware of other jobs/careers	83	42%	31%	3.9
Confirmed career decision	82	43%	18%	3.7
Explained clearly & completely	83	45%	43%	4.2
Help make career decision	79	30%	23%	[illegible].6

Nineteen percent of clients responding to the question regarding awareness of other jobs/careers were undecided. Twenty-eight percent of respondents were undecided as to whether career assessment confirmed their career decision. Thirty-six percent were undecided as to whether the results helped make their career decision.

Reasons for using Wascana Institute Career Services

The questionnaire asked respondents to choose from a list what their reasons were for using Wascana Institute Career Services. The following table lists in order of highest to lowest the percentage of responses to each reason, out of a total sample of 241.

Table 7 Reasons for Using Service ($n = 241$)

Reason	# of Valid Cases	Rank Order	Percent
Employment Opportunities	117	1	48%
Develop an action plan	107	2	45%
How to get training info	104	3	43%
How to find a job	95	4	39%
People in occupations	81	5	34%
Further training	77	6	32%
Resolve personal issues	30	7	13%
Financial assistance	19	8	8%

The majority of respondents to the survey were interested in using the services to assist in seeking employment and developing an action plan to realize career goals, and were looking for information that would help them to get the training needed. Of the 241 respondents, only 8% selected information about financial assistance as a reason for using the services.

Overall rating of the services provided

Generally, users of Career Services were satisfied with the quality and relevancy of the services. Ninety-eight percent of respondents rated the services good to excellent. Almost a third of all respondents found the services excellent.

Conclusion

By their responses to the items on the survey, the users of Career Services demonstrated overall satisfaction with the resource centre, workshops, interview skills, résumé service, counselling service, and the career assessments that were used. In a study by Nevo (1990), counsellors were rated high on their empathy and understanding, but rated lower on the questions dealing with decision making. Ninety-two percent of the respondents reported that the counsellor listened to them attentively, whereas 61% responded that the counsellor had helped in making the career choice. Comparative results to this Career Services follow-up survey were found, as 97% of respondents expressed satisfaction with the counsellor listening attentively, and 85% indicated satisfaction with problem solving and decision making.

Some comments by clients regarding counselling services are:

- "The counsellor I talked to helped me to limit my ideas of professions to what my best skills are."
- "Gave me lots of options to think about."
- "My expectations were more than satisfied. I have recommended the counselling services to several friends."
- "My expectations weren't immediately met because I was still uncertain about the decision I needed to make."

Sixteen percent of respondents (*n* = 97) seemed to be unclear as to whether the counsellor had assisted in problem solving and making a decision. Counsellors will need to place more emphasis upon the development of an action plan that is specific and behavioral. Young (1994) proposed that an action-oriented approach to study outcomes of career interventions should be applied. An action theory would use the client language and experience and focus on the constructs the participant uses to interpret behaviour.

In the study by Nevo (1990), the respondents (*n* = 79) comprised 38% males and 63% females. In the Career Services follow-up survey (*n* = 237), the gender representation was 30% male and 70% female. Nevo's (1990) study was conducted through the University of Haifa's Career Counselling Centre. The group under study in the follow-up survey were taken from the general public and included re-entry female clients and business and industry clients. Studies included in the meta-analysis by Oliver and Spokane (1988) did not include returning women and business and industry subjects. It appeared that more re-entry females and clients from other sectors of the economy used the Career Services of Wascana Institute.

Implications

As increasing numbers of adults change careers and return to formal educational institutions, a greater need for providing quality career-counselling for the adult is developed. (Dean 1988) There may be an increasing proportion of male clients as restructuring of government agencies and corporations occurs. Providing accurate labour-market information that is regional as well as national is relevant to the counselling process. Cooper (1986) pointed out the need to assess career indecision as a block to making a vocational decision. Career indecision could be another factor introduced into a study of clients using these services.

Flynn (1994) reviewed the studies of the effects of various career-counselling interventions and their positive outcomes. Further research is needed to assess the process and outcome of career counselling in order to improve the effectiveness of the service.

Hiebert (1994) pointed out the relevancy of the development of a "user-friendly" model for evaluation of career counselling. The model needs to include opportunity for formative and summative evaluation, and to incorporate the interactions between clients and counsellors during the counselling process. Learning outcomes become an integral part of the evaluation process. The challenges faced by agencies that provide career counselling will include cost efficiency and evaluation of the outcome of the counselling process. Conger et al. (1994) have provided the rationale for the need for evaluation of services. A structure that is usable in various counselling settings and that is easily administered for counsellors in terms of time and effectiveness will be essential.

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Cheminements de carrière

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Introduction

Le programme Cheminements de carrière a été développé par Norman Amundson et Gray Poehnell, en association avec des experts-conseils en counselling d'emploi du ministère du Développement des ressources humaines Canada. Ce programme a été conçu sous forme de guide de manière à servir d'accompagnement et d'outil de travail dans le cadre d'entrevues de counselling individuelles ou de groupe. Les activités ont été élaborées à partir du modèle concentrique du counselling de carrière conçu par Amundson (1987, 1989, 1994). Un certain nombre de ces activités correspondent à celles du programme de counselling de groupe *Repartir sur une nouvelle voie* élaboré par Amundson et Poehnell (1993). L'ensemble de ces activités constitue une approche globale de la réévaluation du choix de carrière et de la prise de décisions.

Bien que ce programme ait été conçu comme un outil complet en soi pour faciliter l'apprentissage individuel, rien n'empêche le conseiller de choisir des parties du guide auxquelles on portera une attention particulière dans une situation de counselling de carrière individuel. Sachant cela, le conseiller devrait faire en sorte que le matériel choisi corresponde aux différentes étapes du processus d'orientation professionnelle. Si elles sont effectuées au mauvais moment dans le processus d'orientation, les activités peuvent être répétitives ou déroutantes.

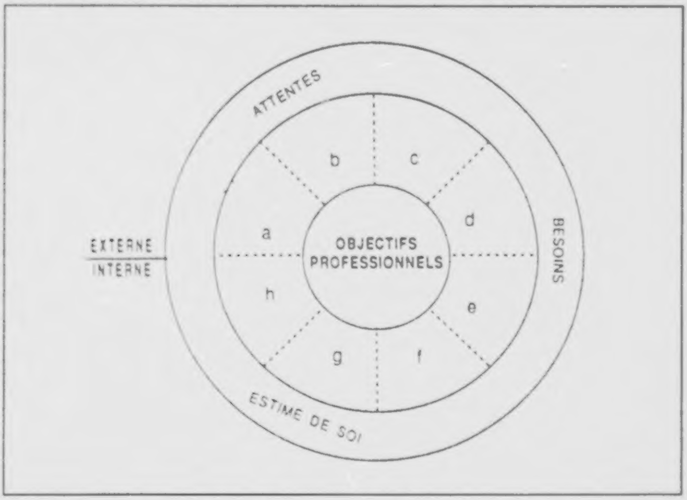
Le guide est conçu pour les personnes qui souhaitent réorienter leur carrière et qui ont la volonté de faire des efforts dans ce sens. Les activités ont été conçues de façon à avoir un vaste champ d'application. Des personnes de groupes d'âges, de couches sociales et de milieux professionnels variés devraient pouvoir profiter du programme, en tout ou en partie.

Comme le guide constitue un programme complet en soi, le client devra consacrer beaucoup de temps et d'efforts pour couvrir tout le matériel. Le temps nécessaire pour accomplir cette tâche dépendra de ses aptitudes, de sa motivation et du temps dont il dispose pour cette activité. Il est souvent préférable de faire travailler les clients sur des parties choisies, comme s'il s'agissait d'un devoir entre les entrevues de counselling, plutôt que de leur remettre le guide pour une étude complète en une semaine ou deux. Le travail individuel et le counselling personnel peuvent permettre de voir tout le guide facilement et de façon adéquate.

Contenu du guide

Un guide de ce genre repose sur un certain nombre de fondements théoriques. Le modèle concentrique, tel que nous le présentons à la figure 1, joue un rôle prépondérant dans la structure et dans l'ordre de présentation des activités. La première étape du modèle consiste à déterminer dans quelle mesure les participants sont prêts à participer au programme, des points de vue notamment de l'estime de soi, des attentes et des besoins essentiels. Dans la première partie, nous posons la question : «Êtes-vous prêt?», et cette partie contient trois activités qui sont parallèles au modèle concentrique. Les activités suggérées portent sur le cycle de la perte d'emploi, soit les hauts et les bas affectifs pendant le chômage; les mythes courants sur les carrières et les obstacles personnels qui empêchent d'entreprendre un changement de carrière.

Figure 1 Modèle concentrique pour l'élaboration d'un objectif de carrière



a) Renseignements sur le marché du travail actuel et prévisions
b) Expérience de travail et de loisirs
c) Préparation : éducation (formation)
d) Influence des autres personnes importantes
e) Intérêt
f) Valeurs
g) Points forts (compétences) et points faibles
h) Style personnel

La deuxième étape du modèle traite d'évaluation et d'exploration selon huit aspects différents. Dans le guide, cette deuxième étape est divisée en deux parties. La première porte essentiellement sur l'aspect personnel, et la question qui y est posée est : «Qui êtes-vous?». Plusieurs activités d'exploration de soi sont suggérés au client : découvrir ses compétences en explorant ses réussites personnelles, découvrir son style personnel, découvrir ses intérêts, découvrir ses valeurs, identifier les personnes importantes, mettre en valeur son expérience de travail (et de loisir) ainsi que sa formation, connaître les changements du marché du travail et l'art de tout assembler.

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Cette partie est suivie d'une autre partie qui porte sur une question analogue : «Que pouvez-vous faire?». Les clients sont invités à faire trois activités : énoncer les options de carrière, explorer celles-ci et les choisir.

Quant à la troisième étape du modèle concentrique, elle porte essentiellement sur les questions touchant l'évaluation, les compromis et l'intégration. Elle constitue une période d'établissement des objectifs et de prise de décisions—éléments qui font l'objet de la quatrième partie du guide. On suggère aux clients les activités suivantes : prendre des décisions, surmonter les obstacles à leur carrière et fixer leurs objectifs de carrière.

Finalement, la dernière étape du modèle porte sur des questions comme l'engagement, l'établissement d'un plan d'action, le suivi et les conséquences. Dans le guide, ces questions sont abordées dans la partie qui étudie la question : «Que devez-vous faire maintenant?».

Il n'est pas nécessaire d'avancer de façon linéaire dans les différentes étapes du modèle concentrique; il est possible de revenir en arrière ou de sauter des étapes. Les personnes qui suivent le programme devraient faire les différentes activités avec autant de souplesse. Il peut s'avérer important de revenir à certaines parties déjà vues.

Comment travailler avec le guide

Nous avons mentionné que le programme est complet; il faut en tenir compte lorsqu'on l'utilise. Dans le cadre d'activités similaires en groupe (comme dans le programme *Repartir sur une nouvelle voie*), les clients assistent à des séances d'une demi-journée pendant deux semaines. La réévaluation du choix de carrière demande du temps et des efforts que les clients de même que les conseillers doivent être prêts à donner. On remarquera que certains des mythes qui entourent l'orientation professionnelle sont essentiellement liés aux efforts et à la persévérance qui permettent d'obtenir de bons résultats.

En situation de groupe, les autres membres peuvent aider à conserver un niveau de motivation élevé. Toutefois, les personnes qui travaillent seules doivent avoir beaucoup plus de discipline et d'initiative. Ainsi, il est bon que le conseiller vérifie régulièrement l'évolution du client. Dans la présentation du matériel, il peut également être utile de se concentrer sur une partie à la fois, en veillant à ce que la tâche ne paraisse pas trop lourde. L'utilisation du matériel dans le cadre des entrevues de counselling est également une bonne façon de faire en sorte qu'il soit vu en entier. Lorsque les conseillers et les clients travaillent ensemble aux activités, tant durant les séances qu'à la maison, la structure des activités apparaît clairement et les clients savent où ils s'en vont.

Une panoplie d'activités peuvent être ajoutées au guide. Si des activités sont effectivement ajoutées, il est recommandé de retirer une activité du processus lorsqu'on en ajoute une autre afin que le processus ne devienne pas trop lourd. Il faut également garder à l'esprit les raisons qui justifient les changements et les ajouts, et faire en sorte de maintenir le rythme du processus d'orientation. En fait, l'ajout de nouvelles activités devrait être surveillé de près afin qu'il ne nuise pas au processus d'orientation.

Les méthodes d'évaluation qui ont été utilisées dans le guide sont des méthodes qualitatives dont l'interprétation est facile. Si un conseiller complète le guide par des mesures quantitatives, il pourra obtenir des renseignements supplémentaires. Il importe toutefois que les conseillers qui apportent cette modification aient les qualifications nécessaires pour faire passer les tests, les analyser et en interpréter les résultats.

En donnant ce guide, les conseillers doivent garder à l'esprit les objectifs de cet ensemble d'activités. Le guide traite principalement de réévaluation du choix de carrière et de prise de décisions. Bien que la recherche d'emploi soit mentionnée, elle ne constitue pas une priorité. Pour obtenir plus d'information sur la recherche d'emploi, les clients devraient être dirigés à un autre programme.

Conclusion

À bien des égards, le chevauchement des activités dans les domaines du counselling individuel et en groupe peut comporter des avantages. Les clients peuvent être assurés que, peu importe le mode de counselling entrepris, ils auront accès à des méthodes d'exploration et d'évaluation similaires. La formation des conseillers en emploi comportera également certains avantages en raison des parallèles dans les domaines du counselling individuel et en groupe.

Ce guide comporte un autre avantage : il suit un modèle de counselling précis. Les activités du programme sont compatibles et structurées en fonction du modèle concentrique, et ce fondement théorique constitue une solide assise pour ce programme de counselling de carrière.

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Communicating in tomorrow's workplace

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Communicating in tomorrow's workplace

Not only are the structures of tomorrow's work environment driving a need for change; change is also being driven by the reality of a world of e-mail, faxes, video conferences, and the information superhighway. This world of very rapid and complex communication requires sophisticated skills in communication and leadership to function effectively.

We are already seeing the emerging nature of the workplace of tomorrow, characterized by more collaborative work arrangements formed through business alliances, liaisons, partnerships, and joint ventures. To be competitive, organizations are feeling pressured to pare down to the bare minimum to get the job done, and to rely upon collaborative arrangements for administrative and support services and upon partnerships for attaining competitive advantage. These leaner, delayered organizational structures will have fewer supervisors and middle-managers and more empowered employees and self-managed teams. And, as this chain of events continues, the traditional employee-employer relationship and communication roles will undergo drastic upheaval.

Much has been written about the need to restructure, downsize, right-size, or reengineer the structure of organizations. Not enough attention, however, has been paid to the vast amount of change that must occur to make these new structures work. That is, the personal change required to relate and communicate in an environment where power responsibility constantly shifts between leaders and followers.

The human tendency, during times of upheaval, is to enter into the new structure, policy, procedure, or technology with the same comfortable approaches used in the past. For example, when the computer was first introduced, only the typewriter was replaced by this complex machine, which was often used solely for word processing. In a similar fashion, we are packing along our old ways of doing things into these newly-structured organizations. We have changed structures, workgroup arrangements, and reporting relationships but continue to use top-down "silo" means of communicating and relating.

One-directional communication

Traditional management skills included the ability to plan, delegate, direct, control, and evaluate. These activities, and the ensuing relationships with employees, were carried out in a predominately one-directional mode of communication. Managers were often selected on the basis of their proficiency in understanding the rules, policies, and directives of the organization, and were evaluated on the success with which these tenets were passed on and implemented by subordinates, precisely as dictated. The manager of the future, however, will no longer be able to command and control in this world requiring negotiation and compromise—this world of alliances, joint ventures, and partnerships. Instead, a manager will need to learn to operate without the power base that comes with position authority.

Information was power in the traditional organization, and the manager's job was to control and filter the information that needed to get through to staff. The role of the staff was to receive and follow those messages as precisely as possible. This one-directional mode of communication is no longer viable in the Communication Age. The relative ease of information exchange fostered by technology is tearing down these barriers and unleashing a flow of information; creating new levels of awareness, understanding, and commitment; and opening doors to creative and provocative thought at all levels.

In the era of mass production, the one-directional mode of communication was used for very specific reasons. A sender delivered a message to an audience that was usually homogenous, such as workers on the assembly line. The message was prepared and coded in basically one fashion or format. The manager sent the message, and the employee received and interpreted the message precisely as it was sent. This concept of communication emerged in the 1920s and was well-suited to an environment characterized by the times—two World Wars, military manoeuvres, and the rise of mass production and distribution. Directions were followed and implemented, information was passed top-down, responses were consistent, and staff were predictable. Managers controlled information and the level of understanding and awareness of employees. This model of communication was exactly what was required. You did not want some empowered person on the assembly line determining a better way to create the wheel.

Two-way symmetrical communication

But what is different today? We know that organizations, institutions, and political systems are under attack. The old models no longer apply. We live in a world where untold amounts of information are freely available to anyone around the world within seconds. There is no longer a time lapse or educational lapse to allow senior officials to mould or control their desired messages. Similarly, front-line staff can no longer sit back and say, "Let's just wait until the 'suits' figure out what to do and tell us." Decisions and actions must be made quickly and must be customized for each situation in a knowledge-based workplace.

Another feature of the new workplace is a greater reliance upon the intellectual "property" brought to the workplace by each and every employee. Using the intellectual assets available to their fullest potential is the key to success for many corporations and organizations. Reliance upon brainpower and employee intellect for success does not allow for the traditional one-directional communication in which the manager gave direction and the employee followed. The future challenge for all workers is to play the role of leader and follower alternately, maximizing intellectual capacities in either role for optimal organizational results. The communication abilities of the new leaders/followers will be quite different from those used by traditional managers and employees.

The model for effective communication for tomorrow's organizations is best defined by James Grunig in his recently published book, *Excellence in Communication and Public Relations.* Grunig says, "Two-way symmetrical communication is required—it uses research and dialogue to manage conflict, improve understanding and build relationships with publics. With the symmetrical model, both the organization and publics can be persuaded; both may also change their behaviour."

Underlying this definition is a belief that all publics have valuable input for the decision-making process. There is a great need to enter into relationships in which all parties engage in dialogue—a Greek term, *dialogus*—referring to a free flow of meaning between people. Just as organizational lines between the "suits" and the front-line workers are meshing, so, too, are the communication roles between leaders and followers.

Today, we seek communication that allows for honesty and accuracy of information exchange; ensures that the public, our staff, and ourselves receive all possible information on what is occurring within the organization; and obtains public acceptance through ensuring that the public understand our messages. It also requires us to listen to our clients and publics, and to adapt to meet their expectations. Trust and empowerment are critical outcomes of effective communication made possible by an environment that allows for a shifting of power, so that leaders and followers can alternate roles to maximize intellectual assets.

This two-way communication style is also critical for collaboration—the cooperation of management and staff, organizations and publics, towards common goals. Organizations need to form strategic alliances with publics, customers, and suppliers for mutually beneficial relationships both inside and outside the organization. And finally, two-way symmetrical communication is absolutely critical if organizations are to be successful in bringing about significant change and moving in a direction that everyone understands and is committed to.

Although we have seen a decade of restructuring, reengineering, and total quality management, many of these experiments have failed to reach their full potential. The basic relationship and communication competencies needed to operate in these new work arrangements have not been thoroughly defined or developed.

The communication abilities of the new leaders and followers are quite different from those used by traditional managers and employees. Moving from old and comfortable modes of relationships and communication require significant personal commitment to change. But, in any change process, we do not move easily from the old to the new. We struggle to let go of comfortable systems and behaviours and accept the uncertainties of transition. Certainly, for today's managers, life was much easier when people could be counted on to do as they were told. Just as they were taught as children to be seen and not heard, so, too, have these managers carried this belief system into their organizations. Employees were expected to receive messages and take action as dictated by management.

Even in organizations with insight into these changing communication requirements, there has been little research done on the roles and competencies required to succeed both as a leader and as a follower in the future organizational structure. As the first step towards moving away from a one-way receiver/sender mode of communication, we have introduced communication models with a feedback loop. Some examples of this include customer feedback cards, focus groups, public-opinion research, and open staff discussions. We have fallen short, however, of true two-way symmetrical communication. At best, what we have accomplished is a two-way asymmetrical communication in which we are looking for reinforcement that our messages have been received. This two-way asymmetrical framework is often used solely for the purpose of better influencing the client or public to accept our message. An attempt is made to change the client with no intention of changing ourselves. Rarely have organizations fully embraced the symmetrical communication model in which we are prepared to change ourselves, our policies, or our products to truly meet the expressed needs of clients.

Roles for leaders and followers in tomorrow's workplace

Our leaders of the future will be called upon to perform in seven key areas: animator/team developer; educator/coach; change agent; strategist; social marketer; joint venturist; and spokesperson.[1] The corresponding roles to be played by the follower are: team player; learner/protégé; needs/issues analyst; doer/manager; social actor/modeller; joint venturist; and spokesperson.

Let's look at each of these pairs of roles, and, using a case-study, examine how these roles might be played out in the course of day-to-day work in an organization. Our case-study is derived from a fictitious situation in which Susan is the manager of a human resource centre and Randy is an employment counsellor.

Case-study 1

Leader	Animator/team developer motivates and mobilizes a team, ensuring communication amongst everyone.
Follower	Team player positions self to function within a team; understanding project outcomes, other team members' roles and talents, and own role and talent.

Susan and her staff have just learned of new policy changes coming from headquarters. Susan holds a team discussion on the impact of these changes on day-to-day operations. Susan facilitates (rather than directs) this discussion, ensuring that all team members are involved, contribute, and are heard by others. Her contribution to the discussion is primarily motivational, tying the policy changes to the larger mandate of the organization. Randy actively participates in this team discussion, not so much by contributing his ideas (which he does) but by asking a number of questions of other team members about the expected outcomes of the team and the roles that team members now need to play. Randy is mentally determining the gaps that the team may experience and his role in relation to everyone else's role.

Case-study 2

Leader	Educator/coach facilitates changes in behaviours, beliefs, and attitudes, encourages development of potential.
Follower	Learner/protégé determines own learning needs, self-initiates learning experiences, and conducts self-analysis.

Susan recognizes that team members, including Randy, need to acquire new competencies in order to implement the policy changes. She knows she has neither the time nor the expertise to determine what these learning needs are for each team member. She, therefore, ends the team discussion with an offer: "As we all figure out how our roles will be changing, let me know how I can help you acquire the skills you'll need to be effective." As few days later, Randy approaches Susan to talk about the competencies he needs to acquire. He has already reviewed his emerging role and identified several areas of competence that he wishes to develop. He tells Susan that although he could learn some of them on his own, he would need to attend a couple of workshops to acquire some new competencies. As he tries out his new skills in the workplace, he commits to give her feedback. Susan, in turn, agrees to provide feedback when requested, and to act as his coach when he needs help.

Case-study 3

Leader	Change agent instigates organizational change to respond to changing needs/issues and to be ready for anticipated changes.

Follower	Needs/issues analyst continually reviews customer needs and issues, supplier circumstances and the competition's activities, feeding this information to the change agent.

The policy changes that came from headquarters need to be implemented in ways that meet the needs of each regional office and each human-resource centre. One of Susan's tasks is to prepare her team to adjust the ways they implement the policies so that the new operations fit with the emerging needs of the community. Fortunately, Susan's staff continually feed her information about their clients' needs, feelings, and perceptions. They also keep in close contact with other career and employment agencies, and they let Susan know these agencies are responding to changing needs. Randy, for example, informs Susan about his client's concerns regarding the automation of services and their fear about high-tech equipment. Susan uses this and other information to recommend to the team that they begin coaching clients on computer and touchscreen use, prior to the full implementation of the self-serve kiosks in the centre.

Case-study 4

Leader	Strategist develops long-range communication strategies and tactics.
Follower	Doer/manager implements and manages operation activities.

If these changes are misunderstood, Susan knows the policy changes can generate negative feedback from the public and other service providers. She therefore works out a strategy for informing clients, the media, and other service providers about the changes. The strategy is given to all staff members so they will each understand the approach to be taken in their day-to-day interactions with clients and with the public. They understand the potential problem areas and issues in advance, and accept responsibility for communicating key messages and developing actions in their daily interactions to offset potential negative feedback. Although Susan is one of the key communicators, her strategy requires each team member to play a significant role in "spreading the word." She asks Randy, for example, which stakeholders he would be comfortable addressing. Randy takes on the business community and arranges a series of meetings and presentations with groups like the Rotary Club.

Case-study 5

Leader	Social marketer works to understand and respond to the opinions of various internal and external publics.
Follower	Social actor/modeller "walks the talk" of the organization's values and beliefs.

A large part of Susan's strategy comprises social marketing: listening to the concerns and public issues, and reassuring and ensuring that the human-resource centre meets client needs by remaining client-centred, friendly, and helpful in delivering services by minimizing bureaucracy and paperwork. The main message from the new policies is "Government will be helpful, but don't expect hand-outs." You do your part and we'll do our part." She and her team need to constantly listen to the clients and to the public and, within the policy guidelines, still ensure that the programs and services are designed to meet the needs of the clients. The feedback from clients and the recommendations from this on-going, two-way symmetrical communication will be filtered back into the organization to influence program and policy design.

Case-study 6

Leader	Joint venturist develops working partnership with other organizations.
Follower	Joint venturist develops working partnership with other individuals within the organization, other teams within the organization, and with suppliers.

In the push to do more with less, Susan wants to ensure that other service providers in the community are filling the gaps left by reduction in her centre's services. She helps form an informal "Community Work/Employment Association" comprising her community's service providers. Through this association, she is able to establish task-specific partnerships with each service provider. Randy and his team joint-venture with the same organizations, but on a more operational, hands-on level.

Case-study 7

Leader	Spokesperson informs various internal and external publics of organization activities.
Follower	Spokesperson informs various internal and external publics of organization activities.

Various media approach the human-resource centre for specific information about the new policies. All staff prepare themselves to answer questions from the public, and specific media spokespersons are identified. One day, Susan is interviewed by a local radio station; another day, Randy speaks with a reporter from a community newspaper. The office develops a communication strategy for the periods of time before the introduction of the policy, during the implementation of the policy, and following the implementation. Spokespersons are identified for specific media and public communications roles, and all office staff know their designated responsibilities. Spokespersons are provided with the training and support necessary to produce excellent communication results.

As organizations continue through this transformation process, we will increasingly need to advise leaders and followers of the competencies required for success in the new workplace. The role definitions in this paper begin a process for analysis of the specific competencies and capabilities to function in each role. Leaders and followers, alike, will need to embrace new skills, knowledge, motivations, attitudes, and beliefs consistent with their increasingly participative roles.

Endnotes

1 Defined by Communication Competency Profiling Committee—Human Resources Development Canada; chaired: J. Berg.

Community-based training: Full partner in the economy

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Introduction

Current trends in Western nations towards deficit reduction and balanced budgets are creating changes in social welfare policies. Although decisions to adjust social programs are in process, there seems to be a general agreement that some important information is lacking. Recently, Canada's Honourable Lloyd Axworthy along with Robert Reich, U.S. secretary of labour, were quoted as calling on the Organization for Economic Co-operation to create "comparable and standard measures of human capital investment and common performance indicators of such investment". (Drohan 1995) Health, education, and social-service sectors are also looking for new methods to account for the benefits of their interventions.

Social-accounting measures currently in development have much to offer in this area. They are emerging from new perspectives on Canada's social economy. While much is known about the public- and private-sector economies, much remains to be learned about the social-economic sector in which nonprofits operate. A knowledge of the social-economic sphere and its importance to the overall economy is essential for the design of new accountability frameworks and instruments, for it is in the social-economic sector that much of public welfare policy has its impact.

Social accounting attributes economic values to social products. It has relevance for all three sectors of the economy—in the public sector when the costs and benefits of social programs are being discussed; in the private sector as businesses consider contributing resources to social projects; and in the nonprofit sector where currently there is no financial value attributed to the output or benefits of the services provided.

This paper will report on a social-accounting project currently underway that, in its first phase, will use a social-audit process to measure how community-based training projects contribute to the local and national economies. In its second phase, the project will adapt the process to health, education, and other social-service areas.

Community-based training

Community-based training (often referred to as CBT) has been described as "the process of equipping individuals who are experiencing barriers to employment with the skills, knowledge, and capabilities necessary to secure and maintain employment. Community-based training is characterized by a learner-centred approach. Training projects are designed on the needs of the community, the labour market, and individual participants". (Johnson and Morgan 1995, p. ii)

There are several distinguishing characteristics of community-based training programs offered in the nonprofit sector. They most frequently serve clients facing significant systemic and personal barriers to employment. CBT clients include people with disabilities, recent immigrants who are not yet fluent in English or French, displaced youth, people who have been institutionalized, single mothers who have not worked outside the home, people with low levels of literacy, and people recovering from addictions—people who are willing to overcome daunting barriers in order to work. The many CBT clients who have completed training and are working successfully demonstrate that motivated CBT clients can surmount severe obstacles to employment (ONESTeP 1995).

Most CBT clients would not meet the requirements to qualify for other types of employment training. CBT programs are offered in accessible, community-based settings and provide a client-based curriculum as well as individual and group counselling supports. CBT trainers are specialists in training, counselling, job development, job placement, and linking clients to community resources. In many cases, community-based programs were initiated in response to local social and labour-market needs. Because many CBT programs are offered in smaller agencies with grass-roots structures, they can respond quickly to changes in local circumstances.

Canada's social economy

An understanding of Canada's social economic sector has been instrumental in developing the framework for the social-accounting project. Distinct from the public and private sectors, Canada's social economy consists of cooperatives, including mutual insurers; nonprofits in public service (including CBTs); and mutual nonprofits serving a membership. (Quarter 1992) Organizations in the social economy affect the daily lives of almost every Canadian. They include housing, food, and daycare cooperatives; mutual-insurance companies; health, education, and social services such as hospitals and universities, Family Service agencies, The Children's Aid, shelters for homeless people, and literacy programs; cultural and recreational organizations such as the YMCA, and museums; churches and unions; professional organizations such as the Ontario Nurses Association; foundations and charities such as the United Way; and credit unions and caisses populaires, to name but a few.

The size and impact of the social economy are significant. For example, in the late 1980s there were 6,916 cooperative corporations with 12 million Canadians belonging to at least one such organization and with a total (overlapping) membership of 21 million. Many cooperatives are small, but those in agribusiness are among the largest corporations in the country. The assets of all cooperatives (financial and non-financial, including insurance companies) in Canada in 1989 totalled $105.9 billion and their total employment was 70,000. (Quarter 1992, p. x)

Samuel Martin examined the extent of humanistic organizations, which he referred to as those delivering health-care, education, welfare, religious, and cultural services. In 1985, Canada had approximately 50,000 humanistic organizations that handled nearly one-third of Canada's income, and employed more people than all levels of government. (Martin 1985) Using government sources, Quarter concludes that in 1992, there were about 175,000 nonprofit corporations registered in Canada, including 66,000 with charitable status. (Quarter 1992, p. xi)

Many nonprofit organizations in Canada rely on the efforts of volunteers. A Statistics Canada survey covering the 12-month period that started in November 1986 showed that 5.3 million Canadians, or almost 27% of those over the age of 15, volunteered with formal organizations, contributing an average of 191 hours of work per year. One-quarter of those surveyed contributed more than 500 hours per year, and the total of volunteer hours was one billion, which is the equivalent of 615,000 person-years of work. (Quarter 1992)

It has been estimated that the worth of this contribution, at an average value of $12 per hour, would be equivalent to $12 billion in 1987, or approximately $13.2 billion in 1990 dollars. Unreimbursed out-of-pocket expenses contributed by volunteers totalled $841 million in 1987, or $925 million in 1990 dollars. Quarter concludes, "Clearly, volunteerism is an important social and economic force in Canada." (Quarter 1992, p. 45)

CBT and the economy

With an estimated 75% success rate at placing graduates in jobs, CBT is an effective method for training people facing severe employment barriers. (ONESTeP 1995) The Ontario Network of Employment Skills Training Projects (ONESTeP) has over 400 programs associated with its membership of nonprofit CBT-providers serving about 10,000 clients annually. In a recent report based on a survey of its members, ONESTeP estimated that the average income for CBT graduates, after completion of the training program, was $18,218 per year, and that taxes paid on this revenue totalled $3,706, while the average successful graduate's disposable income was $14,512. Using the 75% success-rate figure and the total number of graduates, the report estimated that CBT graduates added a total of $20 million in payroll taxes and $77.5 million in disposable income to the Canadian economy. Since most CBT trainees are on some form of income assistance when they enter the program, the report estimated social-assistance payouts would be reduced by $57 million. There would also be other income-assistance savings, as well as indirect costs saved, such as social-assistance administration (ONESTeP 1995).

A pilot study done on the social benefits of CBT pointed to other indirect savings, among them: reduced medical and dental subsidies, counselling and other social-service savings, and housing subsidies no longer required by graduates. It also highlighted economic benefits to employers hiring CBT graduates and to the community through volunteer efforts and resource-sharing by agencies. (Richmond 1995)

Social-accounting project

The social-accounting project was initiated to demonstrate how CBT is an active player in local and national economies. It has since broadened its scope to include other social-service sectors. With Niigwin—a London, Ontario CBT project—as sponsor, the project is funded by the London Area Office of Human Resources Development Canada. It is being developed by a community steering committee that includes representatives from ONESTeP, from local agencies such as the United Way, as well as from three levels of government.

The first phase of the project consists of a research component sponsored by ONESTeP in which social audits will be conducted in five agencies delivering community-based training across Ontario. B.J. Richmond Consulting Services is developing the social-audit process. The second phase will adapt the social-auditing process for use in health, education, and other social-service sectors. The results of both phases will be shared in a series of community consultations.

It is anticipated that the social-audit process can become a model for use in a variety of agencies in the social-service sector. From it, social researchers can begin to build a database in order to construct a fuller picture of the contribution of nonprofits and of social programs to the national economy. The social audit instrument can contribute to a dialogue about data collection for the purposes of accounting for public expenditures. While it cannot balance budgets, it can help to redress the imbalance in the accounting process for social programs by clarifying the benefits side of the ledger.

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Copilote Insertion : résultats partiels de son expérimentation auprès de personnes en recherche d'emploi

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Introduction

Le logiciel Copilote Insertion est un outil disponible depuis peu pour l'intervention auprès des personnes en recherche d'emploi. Étant donné sa nouveauté, cet instrument fait actuellement l'objet d'expérimentations destinées à vérifier son potentiel d'utilisation auprès des clientèles de différents organismes d'aide aux personnes sans emploi. Nous proposons ici de présenter, après une brève description du logiciel, quelques observations réalisées dans deux recherches en cours, l'une conduite par Jacques Limoges, de l'Université de Sherbrooke, l'autre dirigée par Michel Turcotte, de Développement des ressources humaines Canada (DRHC).

Description du logiciel

Copilote Insertion est un questionnaire informatisé mis au point par le psychologue français Dominique Clavier (1993) à l'intention des chercheurs d'emploi, de leurs conseillers et de leurs formateurs. Il fournit un diagnostic à la fois précis et exhaustif des difficultés personnelles qui peuvent retarder une insertion professionnelle satisfaisante.

Ce questionnaire se compose de 170 énoncés faisant chacun référence à une difficulté particulière pouvant être rencontrée dans la recherche d'emploi. La personne qui le passe répond «vrai, cela me concerne» si elle se reconnaît dans la situation mentionnée, «faux, cela ne me concerne pas» dans le cas inverse. Plus le nombre de réponses positives est élevé, plus la personne s'attribue de difficultés.

Les réponses sont corrigées de façon à donner des résultats par rapport à 20 facteurs qui s'articulent autour de quatre domaines:

1. qualité et pertinence du projet professionnel,
2. qualité des activités de communication concernant la recherche d'emploi,
3. dynamisme déployé dans la démarche,
4. difficultés particulières pouvant faire obstacle à la recherche d'emploi.

À ces quatre domaines s'ajoute, dans la version longue, celui de la stratégie d'insertion, évaluée en fonction des quatre dimensions du modèle Trèfle chanceux (Limoges et autres 1987) :

1. l'Environnemment sociopolitico-économique dans lequel se fait la recherche d'emploi, dans son aspect subjectif (perception) au début de la démarche et dans l'utilisation qui en est faite à la fin de la démarche;
2. la connaissance de soi en relation avec le travail;
3. la pertinence des lieux de la recherche d'emploi;
4. le caractère approprié des méthodes utilisées dans cette recherche.

Le modèle Trèfle chanceux prévoit également les interactions entre les dimensions adjacentes: relation du soi avec les lieux visés, etc.

Répondre au questionnaire prend environ 15 à 20 minutes. Immédiatement après, les répondants reçoivent un rapport écrit mettant en évidence leurs forces et leurs faiblesses, présentant de façon cohérente et quantifiée les difficultés qu'ils rencontrent, identifiant les causes probables de ces difficultés et suggérant des mesures correctives. Un autre rapport s'adresse au conseiller. Il attire l'attention sur des comportements que le client n'est peut-être pas en mesure de nommer, indique les risques d'enlisement dans le chômage et précise des pistes d'intervention. Un troisième rapport ne porte que sur la stratégie d'insertion et est destiné aux formateurs suceptibles d'intervenir auprès de la personne.

Conçu à l'origine pour la population française, le logiciel a été adapté pour le Canada : la formulation des énoncés a été revue après expérimentation auprès de sujets québécois (Carrière 1995), et il a été traduit en anglais à l'intention des clientèles anglophones. Il reste à vérifier, par des recherches systématiques, le potentiel d'utilisation de cet instrument dans différents contextes spécifiques à notre culture. C'est ce qui a motivé la mise sur pied d'une recherche dirigée par Jacques Limoges, de l'Université de Sherbrooke et subventionnée par le Conseil de recherches en sciences humaines du Canada (CRSH) (numéro 884-94-0022). C'est aussi ce qui a justifié la mise en place d'une procédure d'essai du logiciel dans cinq centres d'emploi du Canada, anglophones et francophones, sous la direction de Michel Turcotte, de DRHC.

La recherche de l'équipe de Limoges

Objectifs

Cette recherche avait pour but d'apporter des éléments de réponse à trois séries de questions :

1 Quelles sont les caractéristiques du logiciel par rapport à différents aspects psychométriques (pourcentage de réponses positives aux énoncés, validité interne de ces énoncés, consistance interne des facteurs, etc.)?

2 Le logiciel donne-t-il la même évaluation des difficultés vécues par une personne qu'une entrevue approfondie portant sur les mêmes aspects?

3 Est-il possible, à partir des résultats du logiciel, de prévoir si la personne va réussir ou non sa recherche d'emploi, et donc de prévenir l'échec éventuel de sa démarche par une intervention ajustée?

Les réponses à ces questions devraient apporter des éléments permettant de mieux cerner les possibilités d'utilisation comme les limites du logiciel, de mieux comprendre la nature des résultats qu'il fournit et, éventuellement, de préciser les améliorations qui pourraient lui être apportées.

Sujets

La recherche touche 88 sujets en recherche d'emploi, volontaires pour participer à l'étude, qui ont utilisé le logiciel en 1995. Ces personnes ont été recrutées par divers programmes d'aide aux personnes sans emploi de la région de l'Estrie. Elles forment un échantillon stratifié en fonction de trois variables : le sexe, le niveau de scolarité et le nombre d'années d'expérience de travail. D'autres variables comme l'âge et la durée de la recherche d'emploi n'ont pas été contrôlées, mais elles ont été notées de façon à pouvoir être récupérées dans les analyses au besoin.

Résultats moyens obtenus par les sujets

Une recherche comme celle qui vient d'être décrite fournit une masse de données qu'il est impossible de présenter dans un court texte comme celui-ci. Dans le présent texte, nous nous bornerons à présenter une partie de celles qui ont fait l'objet de la communication, soit les résultats concernant les scores moyens obtenus par les sujets qui ont participé à la recherche, relativement aux divers domaines du logiciel.

Aux fins de la recherche, nous avons calculé la moyenne et l'écart type de ces scores par rapport aux cinq domaines explorés par le logiciel, pour l'ensemble de notre échantillon ainsi que pour des sous-groupes distingués en fonction du sexe, du niveau de scolarité et de la durée de l'expérience de travail. Ces résultats sont présentés dans le tableau 1. Il convient de préciser ici que plus ce pourcentage est élevé, plus la personne rencontre de difficultés.

Pour l'ensemble des sujets, on s'aperçoit que très peu de scores atteignent la moyenne théorique de 50 %. Ils se situent pour la majorité entre 30 et 45 %. Ces scores peu élevés sembleraient indiquer que nos sujets, en moyenne, se reconnaissent d'une façon mitigée dans les situations décrites dans les énoncés. L'explication de ces scores réside probablement dans la composition de notre échantillon de sujets. En effet, cet échantillon comprend relativement peu de personnes pouvant être décrites comme des chômeurs de longue durée (plus de deux ans de recherche d'emploi) : 32 personnes sont dans cette situation, alors que 47 autres, soit plus de la moitié de l'échantillon, ont moins d'un an de chômage. On comprend donc que, dans l'ensemble, ces personnes expriment un taux moyen de difficulté plutôt modéré.

Un autre élément explicatif probable consiste dans la non-pertinence possible de certains énoncés pour des sujets de l'échantillon, ce qui peut amener un taux de réponses «faux» exagérant la qualité de la situation de plusieurs personnes. Ainsi, actuellement, quand un énoncé ne s'applique pas à une personne, celle-ci répond «faux, cela ne me concerne pas» au lieu de se reconnaître une difficulté, comme elle devrait le faire dans certains cas. Or, l'examen des caractéristiques de notre

Tableau 1 Moyennes et écarts types des scores obtenus aux domaines de Copilote Insertion en fonction du sexe, du niveau de scolarité et de l'expérience de travail

				Domaines *				
				1	2	3	4	5
Variables *	Groupe	n	stat.					
1	Homme	46	M	38.07	44.37	43.04	31.85	38.52
			E.T.	18.44	15.34	15.49	20.89	15.18
	Femme	42	M	38.11	44.20	42.69	28.61	38.78
			E.T.	13.63	15.13	15.61	14.55	13.91
2	> sec. 5	47	M	33.30	41.46	41.38	24.16	34.61
			E.T.	12.87	14.58	15.56	13.71	13.05
	< sec. 5	41	M	43.58	47.53	44.58	37.34	43.26
			E.T.	18.05	15.34	15.37	20.09	14.89
3	> 3 ans	45	M	40.09	46.79	45.84	32.04	40.34
			E.T.	13.85	13.03	14.50	15.40	12.05
	< 3 ans	43	M	35.99	41.66	39.77	28.48	36.87
			E.T.	18.33	16.86	16.00	20.60	16.65
Total des sujets		88	M	38.09	44.29	42.87	30.30	38.64
			E.T.	16.32	15.24	15.55	18.21	14.59

*

Variables:	Domaines:
1 : Sexe	1 : Pertinence et qualité du bilan
2 : Scolarité	2 : Qualité des activités de communication
3 : Expérience de travail	3 : Dynamisme
	4 : Difficultés personnelles
	5 : Trèfle chanceux

échantillon révèle qu'un certain nombre de personnes, surtout chez les plus jeunes, sont au tout début d'une démarche d'insertion professionnelle. Il y a un certain nombre d'énoncés auxquels ces personnes répondent «faux», non parce qu'elles n'ont pas de difficulté à ce sujet, mais simplement parce qu'elles ne peuvent pas encore se la reconnaître, n'ayant pas encore été placées dans les circonstances qui leur permettraient d'en prendre conscience. C'est le cas, par exemple, d'énoncés rapportant des difficultés vécues avec les curriculum vitæ les entrevues d'embauche ou les lettres de candidature. Les personnes qui n'ont jamais passé d'entrevues d'embauche, jamais envoyé de candidatures par écrit, jamais composé de curriculum vitæ vont probablement répondre «faux» à ces énoncés, et paraîtront alors dans une meilleure posture que des personnes en réalité plus avancées dans leur démarche et qui ont fait l'expérience de ces activités.

La proportion de réponses positives est donc peut-être sous-estimée par rapport à celle qu'on aurait eue avec de **vrais** chercheurs d'emploi, et les moyennes des scores sont peut-être moins élevées que ce qu'elles devraient être. Il faudra cependant attendre d'avoir des normes par types de clientèles pour mieux estimer la signification à donner à ces résultats.

La comparaison par sous-groupes amène certaines distinctions. En effet, les moyennes obtenues par les sujets varient significativement selon certains enjeux. Des tests statistiques (tests *t*) ont été effectués pour estimer l'importance de ces différences.

- Il ne semble pas y avoir de grandes différences entre les hommes et les femmes; en effet, aucune des différences de moyennes n'est significative au seuil de 0,05. Ceci est de bon augure pour l'utilisation du logiciel avec des hommes ou des femmes.

- Il y a des différences plus marquées en fonction du niveau de scolarité. Ainsi, les personnes sans 5^e secondaire tendent à se reconnaître plus de difficultés dans leur recherche d'un emploi que celles qui détiennent au moins ce niveau d'étude. Les différences sont significatives au seuil de 0,01 pour trois domaines: la pertinence du projet professionnel, les difficultés spécifiques et la stratégie d'insertion. C'est au plan des «difficultés» qu'elles paraissent les plus accentuées, les personnes sans diplôme se reconnaissant nettement plus handicapées. Ces observations vont dans la direction attendue en fonction du sens commun : il est de notoriété publique que le 5^e secondaire est le niveau minimal requis pour la majorité des emplois disponibles et que l'absence de ce diplôme entraîne des limites sérieuses aux possibilités d'insertion.

  Il est possible aussi que les difficultés particulières qui ont empêché ces personnes de terminer leur scolarité (problèmes psychosociaux, d'environnement, d'aptitudes, par exemple) soient aussi vécues sur le plan de la recherche d'emploi (par exemple la difficulté à lire, qui gêne la recherche et la compréhension de l'information) et introduisent des handicaps additionnels.

  Toutefois, rien n'empêche les personnes sans diplôme de dépenser autant d'énergie dans leur recherche d'emploi que les personnes plus scolarisées, ce que semblent refléter les résultats obtenus.

- Par rapport à l'expérience de travail, aucune différence n'est significative au seuil de 0,05. Toutefois, l'aspect systématique des différences observées (elles vont toutes dans le même sens) permet de parler d'une tendance, pour les personnes ayant plus de trois ans d'expérience de travail, à se reconnaître plus de difficultés que les

> autres. Le groupe le plus expérimenté est plus âgé en moyenne que l'autre groupe : 37 ans contre 25 ans. Il est aussi composé de beaucoup plus de chômeurs de longue date (plus de deux ans) : 58 % contre 12 %. Cela pourrait expliquer la coloration un peu plus défaitiste des perceptions de ces personnes par rapport à leur situation.

Rappelons aussi que les personnes sans expérience sont pour plusieurs au tout début de leur insertion professionnelle et ne se reconnaissent peut-être pas dans un certain nombre d'énoncés qui auraient dû au contraire les pénaliser. Il pourrait y avoir pour elles une sous-estimation de leurs difficultés qui, s'ajoutant à la perception plus négative de l'autre groupe, se traduit par les écarts remarqués.

De façon générale, les différences que l'on trouve dans les résultats du logiciel en fonction des sous-groupes étudiés semblent bien s'expliquer par les caractéristiques de ces groupes. La sensibilité de l'instrument à ces caractéristiques pourrait alors être considérée comme une qualité, plus exactement comme un indice de sa capacité à discriminer des groupes ayant différents niveaux et différents types de problèmes d'employabilité.

En conclusion, les observations que nous venons d'énoncer peuvent avoir des répercussions sur la façon d'utiliser le logiciel. Tout d'abord, il paraît important d'en réserver l'usage aux personnes qui sont vraiment en recherche d'emploi et qui ont une expérience suffisante de leur démarche pour pouvoir s'évaluer à partir des situations contenues dans les énoncés. Sinon, il est possible que les scores obtenus exagèrent la qualité de la démarche d'insertion.

En second lieu, il semble essentiel de valider les diagnostics fournis par le logiciel par une discussion avec la personne concernée. Le logiciel est un peu un instrument d'auto-évaluation, qui joue sur les perceptions que la personne a de sa situation et de ses comportements. On peut se demander jusqu'à quel point ces perceptions sont influencées par des facteurs comme l'estime de soi, eux-mêmes dépendant d'éléments comme la durée de la période sans emploi. Il devient donc important, avant de décider d'une action à entreprendre sur la base des scores obtenus, de vérifier quelle est la réalité que recouvrent ces scores. (Un autre volet de notre recherche en cours semble en effet montrer que, pour certains types de personnes, l'auto-évaluation par le logiciel ne correspond pas nécessairement à une évaluation des mêmes aspects, faite au moyen d'une entrevue indépendante. Il y a là un phénomène que nous avons encore à étudier et qui donnera lieu à d'autres publications.)

Tout cela fait déjà partie des recommandations aux usagers du logiciel. Il est intéressant de voir que les observations rapportées ici, issues de la recherche, confirment le bien-fondé de ces conseils.

Expérimentation du logiciel dans cinq centres des ressources humaines Canada

Comme nous l'avons mentionné au début de cet article, le ministère du Développement des ressources humaines Canada (DRHC) est en train d'expérimenter et d'évaluer l'utilisation du logiciel Copilote Insertion dans le cadre de la prestation de ses services d'emploi. Le ministère veut en particulier évaluer l'apport de cet outil dans le processus d'évaluation des besoins de counselling d'emploi et du développement d'un plan d'action du client.

Les clients qui demandent et reçoivent un service de counselling d'emploi suivent habituellement le cheminement suivant: ils sont rencontrés par un agent de première ligne dont la tâche vise entre autres à évaluer rapidement si le client a besoin de services additionnels pour réussir sa réinsertion professionnelle. Ces clients peuvent être rencontrés lors de la présentation de leur demande de prestations d'assurance-chômage ou lors d'une visite subséquente. Si l'on identifie que le client a probablement besoin d'aide et qu'il ou elle répond aussi à certains critères d'éligibilité de services, on dirige ce client à un conseiller en emploi. Ce dernièr procédera à une évaluation plus approfondie des besoins, des difficultés et des ressources du client. Cette évaluation comporte une phase d'identification de la difficulté de réinsertion professionnelle, telle que présentée par le client; une phase de clarification de cette difficulté d'emploi et finalement une phase d'établissement d'objectifs de counselling d'emploi et d'élaboration d'un plan d'action, dans les limites de ce que DRHC nomme les quatre dimensions de l'employabilité : prise de décision au choix de carrière, amélioration des compétences, techniques de recherche d'emploi et maintien en emploi. Ce plan d'action est généralement le point de départ d'interventions en counselling d'emploi que DRHC peut offrir à l'interne ou par l'achat de services à l'externe. Ces interventions feront habituellement l'objet d'un suivi et d'une évaluation.

Description de l'expérimentation en cours

L'expérimentation a débuté en juin 1995 dans cinq centres des Ressources humaines Canada du Québec et de l'Ontario. Une première étape de validation du contenu a été effectuée avec les conseillers en emploi impliqués dans le projet. Cela a été minimal en français, mais un peu plus majeur en anglais. De septembre à novembre 1995, les conseillers en emploi impliqués dans le projet (une trentaine de conseillers) ont reçu une formation d'une journée et demie sur Copilote. Ils ont ensuite pris du temps pour se familiariser avec l'outil.

L'expérimentation et l'évaluation plus systématique de l'outil a donc débuté vers la fin de décembre 1995. DRHC n'a donc pas de données objectives à fournir à ce point-ci de l'expérimentation. Cependant, la période de familiarisation a permis de recueillir des premiers commentaires de la part des conseillers et des clients.

Premiers commentaires

On constate que Copilote permet de confirmer les impressions obtenues lors d'une première rencontre d'évaluation. Le logiciel a permis aussi à plusieurs conseillers de réaliser l'importance de faire une évaluation approfondie et globale avant d'élaborer un plan d'action avec le client. Plusieurs conseillers se sont davantage rendus compte que la dimension portant sur les difficultés personnelles est plus importante à identifier et à traiter qu'il ne le paraît, et ce dès le début de l'intervention. On a réalisé que très souvent l'aspect des sentiments reliés à la perte d'emploi n'était pas assez travaillé.

Copilote a permis à plusieurs clients de se dévoiler plus rapidement, notamment en présence de leur conseiller. Copilote a permis en quelque sorte de briser la glace. Le logiciel a permis aussi à certains clients de réaliser que la perte d'un emploi et la recherche d'un nouvel emploi est un processus plus complexe qu'ils ne le pensaient. Pour certains d'entre eux, Copilote a facilité la prise de décisions concernant les solutions possibles par rapport à leurs difficultés d'intégration professionnelle. Par exemple, une cliente se posait la question à savoir si la formation était la réponse à son problème d'intégration professionnelle ou si c'était ses habiletés à la recherche d'emploi. Copilote lui a permis de réaliser que son problème d'intégration professionnelle était plus relié à sa capacité de mettre en valeur ses compétences que d'acquérir ou d'aller chercher une nouvelle formation professionnelle.

Les clients ont trouvé en général que le niveau de lecture était approprié et assez facile à comprendre. Il n'y a pas eu de réactions négatives observées jusqu'à présent. L'impression générale qui se dégage est que Copilote a aidé ces utilisateurs à préciser davantage leurs difficultés d'intégration professionnelle. On se rend aussi compte qu'il est important de bien préparer le client avant l'utilisation et de clarifier l'objectif.

Ce début d'expérimentation semble donc indiquer que Copilote pourrait être un outil valable dans le cadre du processus d'évaluation des besoins de réinsertion professionnelle. Dans le cadre de cette expérimentation, DRHC veut aussi évaluer l'introduction de Copilote à différents moments de la prestation de ses services d'emploi. À titre d'exemple, DRHC veut introduire Copilote avant que les clients soient dirigés au service de counselling de manière à possiblement ébranler, dans certains cas, la croyance de plusieurs clients, à savoir que la solution à leurs problèmes passent obligatoirement par le parrainage à des cours de formation. Dans d'autres cas, on veut ainsi préparer davantage ces clients à l'entrevue d'évaluation.

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Demonstrating value: An evaluation workbook to increase accountability

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Demonstrating value: An evaluation workbook to increase accountability

There is a sense that counsellors are constantly evaluating the work they do with clients. Most counsellors (and clients, too) have a fairly accurate idea of how things are going and what things are working in counselling. Further, most counsellors seem to be doing a good job, and they usually can identify what client cues or signals tell them when things are going well and when things could be better. However, when asked how often they formally evaluate their work with clients, over 40% report they never evaluate their work with clients. Another 40% report that they evaluate their work simply by asking the client if the session was useful. Less than 10% reported using any sort of formal evaluation on a regular basis. This places counsellors in an extremely vulnerable position, because without evaluation evidence they will have difficulty demonstrating—to the satisfaction of their managers and funders—the value of the client service they provide.

In times where there is an increased emphasis on accountability, the place of evaluation in counselling becomes more important. However, most counsellors have little training that equips them to formally evaluate their work. There is little emphasis on program evaluation in most counsellor-training programs and few in-service opportunities to acquire strategies for evaluation. Further, counsellors seem to discount their informal observations as not being a legitimate vehicle to evaluate their work. Thus, counsellors are at a severe disadvantage because there is increased emphasis in an area where they have little training.

To help address this situation, the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation commissioned the development of a self-guided workbook to assist counsellors, supervisors, and agency managers in examining their evaluation practices and developing more effective ways to address accountability concerns. The workbook provides a relevant and practical resource to help counsellors obtain evidence that demonstrates they are doing a worthwhile job, and thus help them increase their confidence in their approach and help them be more systematic in their efforts toward continuous improvement. This paper describes the approach to evaluation taken in the workbook. It provides an overview of the guiding principles underlying our evaluation model, the assumptions on which the model is built, and a brief description of an evaluation model that agencies can use to help them demonstrate success to everyone that has a stake in the services they provide.

Guiding principles

One of the challenges in evaluation is to "demystify" it, so that all participants see evaluation as a process that is relatively straightforward and provides real benefits to them. Therefore, in developing the workbook, there were several principles that guided its design:

1 The approach should be generic and applicable across a variety of settings. The examples in the workbook pertain to career counselling; however, they are only for illustration. The framework around which the workbook is structured is one that can be applied in any service-delivery setting.

2 The approach should be non-prescriptive, allowing it to be shaped by the users and tailored to their own unique environments. The approach used in the workbook starts with a self-assessment in order for users to better understand their current evaluation practices. The results of the self-assessment then link users to various parts of the workbook for suggestions on how to address the issues they have identified as needing attention. The philosophy of this approach is to help users achieve the evaluation goals they set for themselves, within their own operating context.

3 The workbook should be easy to use. The structure of the workbook acknowledges that users are not evaluation specialists and that they have many demands on their time. Therefore, a pragmatic series of exercises is provided, with samples that can be modified quickly by the users.

Basic assumptions for evaluation

The evaluation approach used in the workbook incorporates three basic assumptions that, in our experience, make evaluation much more accessible and relevant to practitioners.

A collaborative approach is best

One reason service providers often have difficulty demonstrating they are providing value is that they have not obtained clear agreement at the beginning about what each stakeholder will accept as evidence of "value." We advocate beginning the evaluation process with negotiations between the agency and its stakeholders regarding the goals and objectives of the program, the design of the evaluation system, and the specific methods used to obtain evidence of worth. In order for evaluation to be relevant to practitioners, useful to managers, and meaningful to stakeholders, there needs to be agreement on the baselines (the starting point, the point of comparison for the evaluation), targets (the outcome that is hoped for), and acceptable evidence (the tangible results that will indicate that the targets have been met). Moreover, to ensure that everyone involved will agree on how well the results demonstrate success, the model proposes that agreement be reached in four areas: inputs, services, processes, and outcomes.

Inputs

Input evaluation looks at the resources an agency has to support its mandates. Inputs include things such as number of clients per FTE (full time equivalent) staff, average amount of time per client, program dollars spent per client, and percent of staff time on various activities, such as client work, coordination, consultation, networking, collaboration, client advocacy, supervision, and professional development. At the bottom line, input evaluation is concerned primarily with whether or not funders are "getting their money's worth."

Services

Service evaluation addresses client perceptions of how well the service-delivery system works for them. Overall satisfaction with the service they receive depends both on the assistance that clients get from service providers and on other aspects of agency functioning such as accessibility of services, timeliness, and treatment by reception staff.

Processes

Process evaluation focuses on the appropriateness of the intervention (service or program) selected and the manner in which that intervention is carried out. It includes three factors: *intervention appropriateness* (was the chosen intervention, best suited for achieving the specified outcomes with a particular client?), *intervention adherence by service providers* (how should particular interventions be implemented, and when is customization critical?), and *intervention adherence by clients* (what roles do clients need to enact in order for the intervention to be successful?). In order to evaluate a program or intervention, it is important to make sure the intervention is appropriate for the client problem and that both counsellor and client are following the intervention plan within acceptable limits.

Outcomes

Outcome evaluation focuses on how well client goals and objectives are met. Typically, outcome targets are negotiated with clients at the start of a counselling intervention (or program) by clarifying what it is they want to achieve. When thinking about outcomes, it is useful to distinguish between more immediate client-learning outcomes and those outcomes that might have a more long-term "life impact" for the client. For example, a client might learn job-interview skills (a learning outcome) in order to increase the chances of getting a job offer (an impact outcome).

In order to mount strong accountability arguments, it is important to address all four areas, negotiating with stakeholders about what expectations are realistic and then sharing the results of the evaluation with the stakeholders so they know what has been accomplished. The evaluation framework we advocate begins and ends with collaboration amongst all stakeholders in order to make sure that everyone who has some vested interested in service delivery is part of the evaluation equation.

Informal evaluation procedures need to be more prominent

In the past, counsellors have been hampered by a belief in standardized testing, to the exclusion of alternative ways to obtain evidence of counselling success. Our view is that the informal evidence counsellors and clients use to form their perceptions of counselling success needs to be legitimized as genuine evaluation methodology. This includes procedures such as client self-monitoring, check lists, observations grids, homework records, performance on simulations, and so on. All of these methods can provide useful evidence to attest to counselling success. Most practitioners and clients use such informal procedures to form their opinions about counselling success. Having a framework within which service providers can be systematic about informal methods permits them to use the resulting evidence to demonstrate the value of what they are doing.

Embedding evaluation in the service-delivery process

Most approaches place evaluation at the end of a model, giving the appearance that evaluation is "bolted onto the side" of an intervention or program, rather than being an integral part of service delivery. Frequently no thought is given initially to how results will be evaluated, the evaluation instruments are developed by persons who are not involved in the actual delivery of service. Another difficulty with traditional approaches to evaluation is that often the evaluation process captures little of the richness that has transpired. If practitioners and clients don't see value in the evaluative activities, there will be little motivation to participate constructively—particularly if the evaluation process is time-consuming. Since much of the evidence collection must be done by practitioners (or at least with practitioner cooperation), imposing evaluation requirements onto a busy practitioner can result in a devaluing of the evaluation activities. This is particularly the case when dedicated practitioners cannot see value to be gained from the evaluation exercise and experience it as detracting from time and resources that could be directed to addressing client needs.

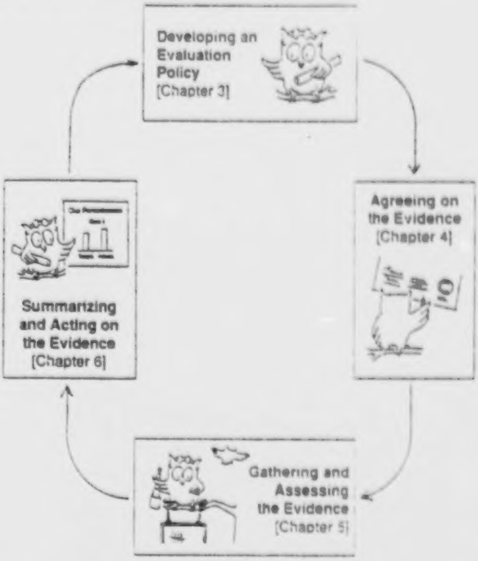
An alternative approach to evaluation

In the workbook, a different approach is proposed. The focus is on becoming more systematic about the evaluative activities that are already taking place in counselling, with the aim of improving the value of the service provided. It includes intertwining evaluation into every part of service delivery so that intervention and evaluation become partners in promoting client change. Ideally, the evaluation methods are woven into the intervention so it does not make more work for counsellor or client, but actually adds to the power of the program.

A process to demonstrate value

In order to address the concerns and implement the alternative approaches described above, four main steps are proposed (see figure 1).

Figure 1 A Process to Demonstrate Value


Developing an Evaluation Policy [Chapter 3]
Agreeing on the Evidence [Chapter 4]
Gathering and Assessing the Evidence [Chapter 5]
Summarizing and Acting on the Evidence [Chapter 6]

The process begins with agreement on the objectives of the evaluation activities and the uses to be made of the results. Then comes the critical step of agreeing ahead of time on the "evidence"—what was the baseline, what is the target for change, and how everyone will know if the target has been reached. Getting agreement ahead of time on the nature of the evidence, how the evidence will be gathered and reported, and what levels of change will be acceptable, is important for avoiding problems when accountability issues are being addressed. The third step is focused on collecting evidence, providing a number of examples for both formal and informal approaches, with particular emphasis on integrating the evaluation evidence into forms or records already in use. Ideally, the evaluation tools can themselves be value-added interventions. The fourth step addresses the use of the evaluation results, including what to do with negative results, to be sure that evaluation is used constructively.

Finally, the workbook guides the user through an of assessment of how well the evaluation process itself has worked and provides a structure for making any modifications necessary.

Conclusion

All too often, counsellors find themselves in a vulnerable position because they cannot demonstrate the value of the client service they provide, to the satisfaction of their managers and funders. *Demonstrating Value: A Career Development Services Evaluation Workbook* is a self-guided resource to assist counsellors, supervisors, and agency managers in examining their evaluation practices and preparing more effective ways for addressing accountability concerns. The approach is identified as one that service providers can use to shape their evaluation approach themselves and make sure the results are of benefit to them. It is guided by a belief that evaluation needs to be embedded in intervention, that formative evaluation needs to feed into summative evaluation, and that evaluation is best attempted by a collaborative approach that focuses on getting agreement about what can be realistically expected from counselling and what evidence will attest to those results. All too often counsellors promise (and often funders expect) the moon, but deliver the house next door. When this happens, credibility is weakened and client service suffers. Therefore, we suggest that "it is important to be cautious about what you promise to deliver, *but* deliver what you promise." Early field-test results suggest that the evaluation workbook described in this paper will help service providers gather and disseminate the evidence they need to demonstrate the success they are having with clients.

Demonstrating Value: A Career Development Services Evaluation Workbook is available from Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation, #202, 411 Roosevelt Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario K2A 3X9. Telephone (613) 729-6164. Fax (613) 729-3515.

Effective and efficient learning for training and retraining

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Introduction

A great deal of the information we are required to learn is presented to us in a less than optimal way. It therefore becomes very important for us to know what actions we can take to learn the information effectively and efficiently. The educational curriculum in most schools, colleges, and universities, allows very little time for instruction in how learning takes place and how to efficiently learn new knowledge and skills. A good teacher knows and practises the appropriate teaching skills, but few students know the appropriate learning skills explicitly. The students use certain techniques they acquire ad hoc, and these techniques may not be efficient ones. It has been stated that the main difference between an "A" student and a "C" student is the efficiency of their learning methods and not in the difference in their basic intellectual capacities.

Learning in a working environment

Adult learners tend to carry on using whatever learning techniques they acquired as students in school. This can pose some serious restrictions on their ability to continually upgrade their knowledge and skills needed in the ever-changing working environment. It also has a direct cost to the organization for which they work. Government, business, and industry spend billions of dollars annually on training and retraining personnel, often in the form of short courses, seminars, and workshops. The training is often intense, in order to reduce the time spent away from the working environment and to minimize the cost of engaging the trainers. The organization then expects the person who has been trained to retain the new information. Without the appropriate follow-up study and practice, the new knowledge will soon be lost.

In all too many cases only 10% of the information given during a seminar is retained two weeks later, or rather, is readily called to mind. There is evidence to suggest that no information is entirely forgotten, but for all practical purposes it is not what one knows that counts, but it is what one can remember at the appropriate time. An answer to an examination question coming to mind after the examination has finished is of no use, nor is the crucial point in a debate or discussion coming to mind after the debate or discussion is over. Learning is an ongoing dynamic process that requires encouragement and support. Good learning practices benefit both personnel and the organization for which the person works.

People are remarkably stable over extended periods of time. They repeat the same sort of behaviour pattern, even when outside observers would expect that a change in behaviour would be beneficial. It seems there is a built-in feedback system that always returns people to their established behaviour pattern, even when a conscious decision has been made to change. One has only to think of what happens to most New Year's resolutions, and to attempts to quit smoking or lose weight. This strong tendency to return to a well-established pattern of behaviour has important implications in adult learning. Any new knowledge acquired that results in a change of behaviour will tend to be forgotten, and the old behaviour pattern will be reestablished. There is added pressure in a work environment to maintain a well-established behaviour due to the effects of state-dependent memory. State-dependent memory is related to the effects on recall caused by the mental and/or physical state that one is in. For example, if one learns some information while one is depressed, it is most easily recalled while one is in a depressed state, and poorly recalled when one is in a joyful state. Information learned while one is in a stressful situation is poorly recalled when one is in a relaxed state.

Most training takes place away from the actual work environment, as a matter of convenience and necessity. The new knowledge and behaviour gained in the seminar or workshop room is strongly associated with that place. On returning to the usual work environment, there will be a strong tendency to continue the previous practices associated with that place, and not to use the new practices that were learned in a separate place. This difficulty in transfer of learning is overcome in some learning environments by using the appropriate simulators, such as for underwater training for divers, and emergency procedures for aircraft pilots. This type of training is expensive and not used unless the costs of mistakes is very high.

Even in physical skills training there is strong tendency to perform in a consistent way in a particular environment, and not transfer those skills to different environments. This is particularly observable and quantifiable in the sports business. An athlete may perform particularly well in one location but perform poorly another. One of the important components in state-dependent memory is the emotional state of a person, which in turn forms part of the overall state of mind. An athlete may perform extremely well in practice, but the emotional state associated with an actual competition may prevent her from repeating the level of performance she achieved in practice. The reverse is sometimes true. An athlete may need the state of mind created in the competitive arena to bring out the best performance, so his training sessions are not as good as he could be.

The word *attitude* tends to be used in everyday situations rather than the term *state of mind*. It is generally accepted that one's attitude has an effect on one's performance. Unfortunately, when one is told one has an attitude, it is usually used in the negative context, implying that one has a poor attitude. It is surprising that when it is recognized that a poor attitude is associated with a poor performance, little is done to help a person acquire a good attitude. It seems to be assumed that one just changes one's attitude by a simple act, or the change can be helped along with the appropriate disciplinary action. Elite athletes of all types, usually through their team's coach or their national coaching organization, employ high-priced sports psychologists to help them attain and maintain the correct attitude during the actual competition.

In the learning and working environments, one is not likely to have access to performance psychologists, so one must take charge oneself. Just recognizing the fact that one's overall state of mind is going to have an important influence on one's learning and subsequent performance, is a big step forward. If one learns something in a peaceful seminar room it is not going to be easy to remember it in a high-pressure work environment. One can prepare for this situation by practising using the new knowledge in gradually more stressful situations. The stress in the work environment can be caused by many factors, but a few of the most common are (1) the need to avoid mistakes, (2) the need to meet a deadline, and (3) fellow workers are watching and/or interfering, such as when the appropriate review of the information is required—reviewing the information in the actual situation where it will be used. Alternatively one can learn to reduce the stress levels and create a more relaxed working environment similar to that encountered in the learning- or information-acquisition stage. A technique for reducing the stress caused by shortage of time to complete work is given below.

Another way to help to recall the information previously learned in a different environment or different state of mind is to use some form of anchor. An anchor is something that is associated with the original information and the place where it was learned. It has been reported that as many as 80% of school, college, and university students take some sort of mascot to their examinations. This mascot could be turned into a anchor by having the same object close by while studying for the examination. It would help to put the student in the appropriate state to recall the information during the examination. The use of anchors has been developed in Neuro-Linguistic-Programming (NLP) to teach people how to quickly establish a particular mental and physical state.[1]

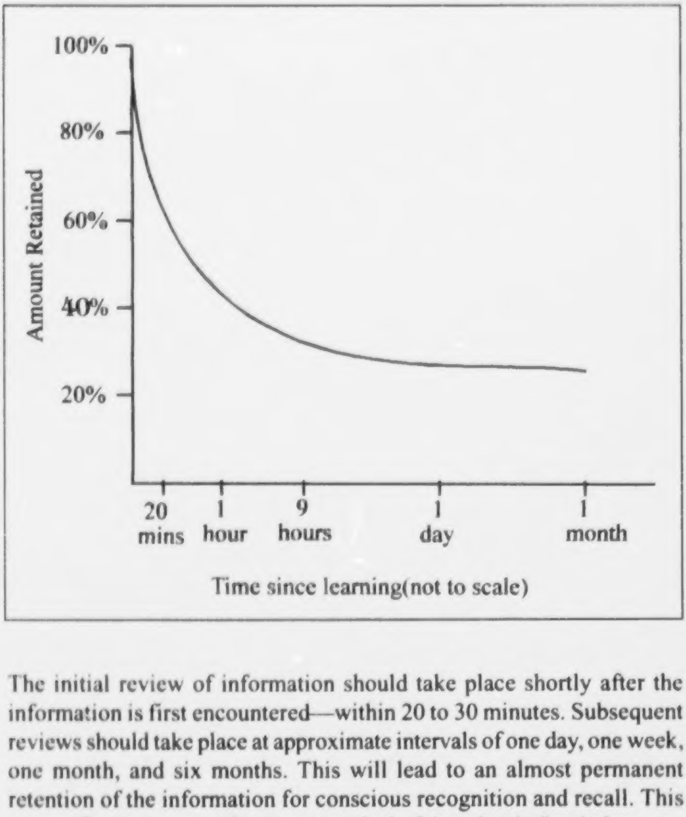
For the information to be reviewed, it must be in an easily retrievable form. The form that is most appropriate for a particular individual can vary considerably from the common form of keeping information in neat paragraphs with the occasional chart or diagram. Most people have a strong visual sense, so the Mind Map derived by Tony Buzan[2] is a useful way of rapidly reviewing a considerable amount of information. For those people that prefer an auditory presentation, the use of some carefully structured notes is more acceptable. A combination of the two methods can be used to construct some form of flow chart. The preparation of the review material does take time and effort, but this itself is a valuable part of the learning and review process. It is dynamic rather than passive. It is converting information into a form that appeals to an individual. The pictures, symbols, and words will take on a personal flavour.

In terms of initial learning and subsequent use and review of the information, it is important to understand the difference between recognition and recall memory. As mentioned above, there is evidence to suggest that somewhere in memory we store much of, if not all, the sensory information we have been exposed to. However, we do not have ready access to these memories. What is normally referred to when we talk about good or poor memory is the ability to retrieve the information from subconscious to conscious awareness. If we are presented with a list of choices and are asked to select the correct one, then we are using recognition memory, as when we are asked to choose from the following list which is the capital of Canada: Winnipeg, Ottawa, Halifax, or Toronto. If, however, the question had been "What is the capital of Canada?" in order to give the answer we would have to use recall memory.

If information is to be normally used in the recognition phase, it should to taught and learned with that aim in mind, the same being the case for recall memory. In formal examinations, it is of little use to learn information using the recognition type of review when the examination will require recall memory, such as practising review of the information with multiple-choice tests when the actual examination requires an essay or solving problems. Inappropriate review often takes place inadvertently. If the notes have been taken or given in the initial teaching/learning phase, it is not sufficient just to read through the notes several times in order to remember them—at least for most people. Rereading notes mostly uses recognition memory unless some other activity is undertaken at the same time, as when reading part of the notes, then writing down the main points without looking at the notes. Students may be very familiar with the information as they look at the notes, but can recall very little of the information when not looking at the notes.

Review of information to be learned must be undertaken at intervals if the information is to be permanently available for recognition and/or recall. It is a matter of selecting the most appropriate intervals between reviews for maximum efficiency and minimum time spent on the review process. Information review is usually the missing component in adult learning of information given at seminars and workshops. The rate at which information is forgotten depends on the type of information and the method used to remember it in the first place. If the new information is meaningfully linked to previously remembered information, the rate of forgetting is relatively slow. If the new information is unrelated to anything previously known, the rate of forgetting is relatively quick. The rate of forgetting was originally mapped by Ebbinghaus[3] and is shown in figure 1. He used a set of unrelated symbols that had no association to any previous information the students had, and no memory aids were used.

Figure 1 Curve of Forgetting



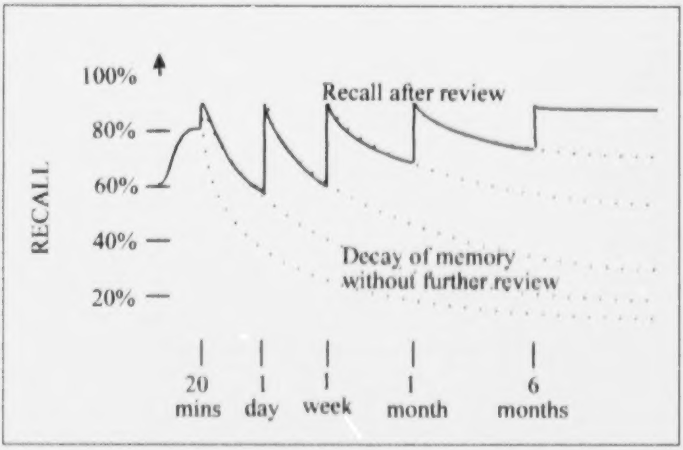
The initial review of information should take place shortly after the information is first encountered—within 20 to 30 minutes. Subsequent reviews should take place at approximate intervals of one day, one week, one month, and six months. This will lead to an almost permanent retention of the information for conscious recognition and recall. This may at first appear to take up a great deal of time, but in fact it does not, provided the information to be learned has been organized in an appropriate way as mentioned above. If it is well organized and summarized, the times required will be approximately those shown in the table below.[4]

Review of Work Done	Time Taken
1 day before	3–5 minutes
1 week before	2–3 minutes
1 month before	2–3 minutes
6 months before	2–3 minutes

Maximum review time on any one day: 14 minutes

This type of review schedule leads to the sort of memory retention shown in figure 2.

Figure 2 Studying for Effect

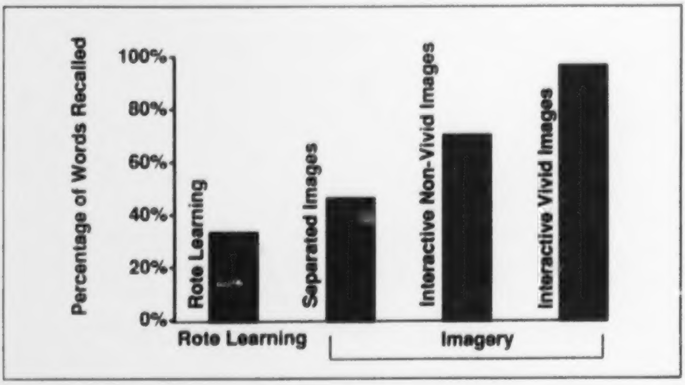


One of the things that people complain about being short of—besides money—is time. It is the perceived lack of time that tends to create a great deal of stress. Time has a particularly precise definition in physics, but in everyday situations it is psychological time that has the most important effect on people, and this sort of time is very variable. If a person is trying to meet a deadline, for example in an examination or when completing a particular piece of work, time seems to go very quickly. Alternatively, if a person is waiting for someone or is bored, time seems to go very slowly. Psychological time is a construct of the mind, so it can be controlled by the appropriate mind techniques that one uses to adopt a particular state.

The easiest way to change a state of mind is through the use of visualization and associated anchors.[5] If a person practises visualizing a scene that in reality would take a long time to happen but only takes a short time to imagine, and also links this with an affirmation that time is passing very slowly, then psychologically time will appear to go slowly. After this visualization has been practised a number of times with the associated affirmation, then just by repeating the affirmation time will indeed appear to slow down. The affirmation acts as the anchor in this case. It is quite surprising what positive effect this simple visualization and affirmation technique has—one can concentrate and accomplish much more than one thought possible in a given period of physical time. The reverse effect can be achieved, causing time to pass very quickly by choosing the appropriate scene to visualize and linking it to the affirmation that time is passing very quickly.

Another important use of visualization is in the learning of new information. If the new information can be strongly associated with previously learned information or symbols, then the initial rate of forgetting is greatly reduced. This is the technique used in the peg system of remembering information. A series of standard symbols are first remembered, and then subsequent information is linked to these pegs. The system was first recorded by the Greeks of antiquity. To remember parts of a speech, they associated a particular idea or phrase with a particular location in a familiar building. That is where the phrase "in the first place" originates. As the speech was given, the various ideas were drawn from their "places." The effect on learning of this technique is illustrated in figure 3, which is taken from the work of Paivio.[6] The term *visualization* causes difficulties for some people because they do not think they are able to create clear visual images. Probably a better term would be *imagination*, because this would take into account the use of the other sensory modes. The more sense modalities one can bring into play the better. Anyone who can get some sense of the location, such as of the place they live, is using some degree of visualization or imagination.

Figure 3 Learning of Word Pairs



Creating an appropriate state for practising visualization is essential for achieving good results. The most appropriate state is achieved through relaxation. Relaxation also has important effects upon performance in general, from working in stressful environments, to taking examinations, to competing in sporting events. There are a lot of misconceptions about relaxation in performance-related situations. Relaxation is usually associated with sitting or lying in a comfortable position and allowing the tension to leave as many muscles as possible, and thinking as little as possible. To relax all muscles is impossible, because some muscle tension is required to maintain whatever position a person is in. This is the important clue to using relaxation during a performance. One must use only those muscles that are absolutely essential to maintaining the position or action that one is engaged in. Using any more muscles than necessary causes the muscles that are necessary to increase their efforts to maintain the position or action. When one is in a stressful situation, the tendency is to tense many of the muscles, which then causes a restriction in performance, which in turn causes more stress. The solution is to regularly check to feel if there is tension in muscles that need not be tense for a particular posture or action. It is easy to start with the facial muscles, particularly those associated with tension around the forehead, eyes, and jaw. Deliberately relaxing these muscles has the effect of relieving the feeling of being understress, mentally and physically, and allows one to perform at a higher level. Being able to relax in this way also allows one to achieve a consistent state for any type of performance, which results in a more consistent performance.

Conclusion

A number of techniques have been outlined that have important effects on one's ability to learn and perform. It is important to explore the various techniques that are available to enhance learning and performance, and select those that are appropriate to you. You then need to devote some time to practise those techniques so that you have them readily available when you need them.

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Enhancing client participation in career counselling

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Introduction

One difficulty that career counsellors face is finding a way to meaningfully involve clients in counselling. Counsellors who work in employment counselling settings often indicate that clients do not return after one or two interviews. Clients in counselling must change their perspective in the direction advocated by the counsellor. If this change does not take place, then clients are likely to discredit the counsellor, discredit the issue, or seek others who agree with the client. (Corrigan, Dell, Lewis, and Schmidt 1980) Clients who do not develop an interpersonal trust with their counsellor are more likely to resort to the last of these options and are more likely to terminate prematurely. One of the reasons for premature termination is that clients do not perceive that they are understood, and experience a lack of interpersonal trust with the counsellor. Clients who experience a lack of understanding and fail to develop interpersonal trust with their counsellors do not share the real issues in their lives. Often such clients go along with the system to ensure financial support, and the employment-readiness issues are not dealt with. This lack of honesty mitigates against client sufficiency and independence in the workforce. Evidence suggests that the degree to which the counsellor is successful in getting the client involved and active in the counselling relationship is predictive of the effectiveness of that counselling. (Beutler 1983) While such involvement appears to be relatively independent of the type of counselling used, it is related to the type and quality of the therapeutic contact, which is influenced by counsellor attitude and behaviours, such as self-disclosure, voice quality, and physical presence. (Beutler 1983)

The purpose of this paper is to examine career counselling from a social-influence perspective and suggest certain counsellor attitudes and behaviours that are necessary to influence clients in a direction that promotes favourable outcomes in career counselling.

Perspectives on counselling: Task and maintenance

Typically, career counselling is viewed as a decision-making process with an emphasis on involving clients in a collaborative relationship. The two components implicit in this process are the task of decision making and the maintenance of the collaborative relationship. The task component suggests that clients must make an employment decision and take responsibility for their decision making, and that the role of the counsellor is to facilitate this process. The maintenance component provides the context in which the task is performed.

Since virtually all human relationships involve persons attempting to influence one another, counselling can be viewed as an instance of social influence. When viewed from this perspective, counselling involves a series of influence strategies designed to enhance counsellor attractiveness, and reduce client opposition to change. Counsellors' social power is hypothesized to result from clients' needs for the resources they perceive counsellors to have. (Strong 1968) Kanfer and Goldstein (1991) suggest that relationship-enhancers are a major means for improving the quality of the helper-client interaction. The relationship or interaction can be defined in terms of three components: liking, respect, and trust. Successful enhancement of these components has been shown to lead to greater likelihood of being influenced and subsequently to greater client change. (Kanfer and Goldstein 1991)

Counselling as social influence

Generally, persuasion literature suggests that the greater the difference between the beliefs conveyed by the persuader (counsellor) and those of the listener (client), the greater the likelihood of belief convergence (the degree to which a client agrees with the counsellor's beliefs) and assimilation (the degree to which the client adopts the beliefs of the counsellor). The relationship between these variables is influenced by two variables: the initial difference between the listener and persuader, and the credibility of the persuader. When the difference in beliefs is too discrepant, the listener is not likely to be engaged in the relationship. When the persuader's credibility is low, the listener is likely to discount the communicator's opinion unless another reason can be presented to enhance the persuader's credibility. (Beutler 1983) The more similarity between the client's values and beliefs and those of the counsellor, the more the client will express satisfaction with the counselling relationship. The effective counsellor is able to motivate the client to adopt a new set of values and beliefs that are more in line with those of the counsellor, or is able to explore important issues without invoking the client's resistance to the counsellor's values. (Beutler 1983)

Social influence and its application to counselling

If we regard counselling as an instance of social influence, then the career counsellor must establish a collaborative and helping relationship from the very beginning. While Rogerian notions (Hackney and Cormier 1996) suggest that the conditions for change in the counselling relationship include genuineness, unconditional positive regard, and empathic understanding, the social-influence perspective suggests that counsellors must attend to those aspects that are likely to influence clients to respect the counsellor's expertise. These aspects include forming meaningful relationships with clients, giving them some idea about what is going to take place in career counselling, and developing a common understanding of the clients' social and cultural context.

Ways to enhance relationships

Counsellor perspectives

There are several concepts espoused by family therapists that I think will greatly enhance the possibility of involving clients in the counselling process and developing collaborative relationships. First of all, I think it is important to view clients as being a part of a system that has influences and stressors acting on them. Typically, clients are viewed as having the ability to be self-determining as if there were no social pressures acting upon them. The reality is that individuals do live in—and are a part of—systems. Career counsellors would do well to maintain this view as they are establishing rapport with their clients. Unless counsellors come to understand this system, they may not be able to understand their clients, who represent only one piece of this system. (Satir 1975)

Satir (1975) suggested that counsellors strive for congruency. This construct is composed of several aspects: universality of people (viewing every human being as having qualities in common and yet different from every other human being), using the senses (realizing that individuals have options and are able to make real choices, and that there is not a single right answer or an either/or situation). Satir suggests that if we are to help clients change, we must communicate a belief that they are able to grow, and make full use of their senses and exercise their freedom to make choices. These constructs address the attitudes that counsellors should have while working with their clients. If these attitudes are portrayed, clients will be encouraged by the degree of interest and understanding demonstrated by the counsellor. This encouragement will generate hope regarding their career planning and/or employment choices.

Minuchin (Okun and Rappaport 1980) suggested that the counsellor form a therapeutic alliance with the client, which is characterized by decreasing the distance between the counsellor and the family system. This is accomplished by joining. Joining requires the counsellor to adapt by experiencing the pressures of the family system. A career counsellor should use this construct to help understand the client. Joining enhances the counsellor's understanding of the client. This perception should enhance the likelihood that a client will remain in counselling until an action plan is developed and completed.

Schultz (1984) suggests that the counsellor must seduce the family into joining in the treatment frame. The process of seduction is to lead the family away from an unproductive view of reality to a new, more successful frame. To do this, the counsellor must use charisma and personal power. This construct suggests that the career counsellor accent the traits and characteristics that enhance interpersonal attractiveness, such as experience, qualifications, and professional associations. These attributes communicates to the client the counsellor's professional expertise, which should enhance the counsellor's interpersonal attractiveness.

Structuring

Structuring is defined as a joint understanding between the counsellor and the client regarding the characteristics, conditions, procedures, and parameters of counselling. Studies on structuring suggest that explaining to clients what to expect during the counselling experience is viewed positively, and increases the quality and quantity of client participation in counselling. (Miller et al. 1995) Clients who are subjected to structuring seem to change their roles in counselling, increase their participation, to drop out less frequently, and more experience positive outcomes more often than those who do not undergo such pretreatment experiences. (Beutler 1983) One of the main reasons structuring can be viewed positively is that the explanation decreases misconceptions, interpersonal fears, and subjective distress, and increase client understanding of the process. (Miller et al. 1995)

Structuring involves orienting clients to counselling by (a) telling them that they will like the helper (direct structuring); (b) briefly describing certain positive characteristics of the counsellor (trait structuring)—such as counsellor warmth and experience—and emphasizing similarity between the client and counsellor (Kanfer and Goldstein 1991); and (c) clarifying what clients can realistically anticipate will go on in meetings with the counsellor (role-expectancy structuring).

Whereas direct structuring and trait structuring entail telling clients something about the kind of person the counsellor is, role-expectancy structuring focuses on what the counsellor (and what clients) will do when they meet. Clients can be provided with a tape recording of a typical counsellor-client meeting or by providing a structuring interview before the first meeting with the counsellor. Role induction provides information about counselling and its anticipated effects. By providing descriptive and factual information, an effort is made to dispel misconceptions about counselling, indicate the probable length of counselling, underscore the necessity of allowing a reasonable time-frame, and outline the client's role in and outside the counselling hour—including how much the client is expected to talk, how the problem will be assessed, whether or not direct advice should be expected, how much responsibility the client will be assigned in the work of counselling, and whether there is the potential for emotional discomfort.

Structuring in career counselling should involve three areas (a) client awareness: identifying the client's strengths, weaknesses, values, beliefs, likes, dislikes, and work-related experiences; (b) occupational awareness: gathering relevant occupational information about a variety of careers; and (c) career decision-making: assisting clients in tentatively selecting an occupation or educational route. Role induction helps the externalizing client to begin internalizing by becoming increasingly introspective. Internal structuring (Beulter 1983) refers to the counsellor's willingness to follow a consistent pattern in working with the client's problems. This pattern includes allowing the review of material that the client considers important, setting an agenda with the client for working on a given problem within the session, constructing an appropriate intervention, and obtaining feedback from the client about the adequacy of the intervention before moving on to other tasks.

Negotiating common understanding

Another method to enhance helping relationships involves purposeful negotiation of the differences between client and counsellor. Differences in social status, gender, age, values, and ethnicity, may come to subvert the development of the counselling relationship unless they are resolved during the initial meetings. (Kanfer and Goldstein 1991) The counsellor and client must reach a mutual understanding of the problem and the treatment plan. First, the counsellor draws out the client's implicit theory or explanation of the problem, then probes to determine why it happened; what stands in the client's way; how the problems influences the client affectively, behaviourally, cognitively, and interpersonally; how long the problem has persisted; what the most suitable treatment might be, and what the expected benefits are. Successful negotiation of these issues produces a satisfying working relationship. The counsellor can draw out and actively discuss any discrepant expectations. Client adoption of the counsellor's positive expectation can occur if the counselling rationale presented is believable and couched in metaphors familiar to the client. The counsellor's overall goal is to create a viable frame within which successful counselling can occur, and to get the client to participate in this new frame. The treatment frame must be close enough to the client's original view of reality that it is possible for the client to join in, yet different enough to allow for the possibility of change. (Schultz 1984)

Counsellors must understand culture-specific knowledge if they are to interpret accurately and respond to the social meaning of verbal and non-verbal information. The interpretation of the problem should also be negotiated in order to create a mutually agreeable action plan. Counsellors and their clients can better understand each other's messages by engaging in small talk. Counsellors should search for personal similarities, mutual interests, or experiences. Self-disclosure appropriate to the client's expectations helps identify background commonalities. Counsellors should strive for insight and not the use of discrete skills only. The use of skills without overall understanding may actually increase the risk of premature termination. (Kanfer and Goldstein 1991, p. 31)

Accommodating

Munichin (1974) advocated the use of accommodating when the emphasis is counsellors adjusting themselves in order to achieve joining. He described three styles of accommodating. The first style is termed *maintenance*, in which therapists actively support the existing dysfunctional family structure. Maintenance often involves confirming and supporting an individual's strength and potential. Career counsellors should provide support for their clients by listening attentively, by demonstrating unconditional positive regard, and by demonstrating warmth and patience with their clients. Such counsellor traits will enhance the likelihood of counsellor interpersonal attractiveness. The second style is called *tracking*, in which therapists merely attend to the family's communication and behaviour patterns. Tracking involves asking clarifying questions, making approving comments, or asking for clarification of a point. Counsellors do not challenge what is said, but position themselves as an interested party. Career counsellors should carefully listen to their clients to understand the clients' internal realities as well as the social realities in which clients live. This level of understanding will promote counsellor attractiveness and understanding of the presenting problems. The third style is known as *mimesis*, in which counsellors in a sense join the family by adopting its style and affective range. This work is done without challenging the family structure, so that counsellors can experience the current dynamics and hereby form a diagnosis. By mimicking or mirroring client behaviour and speech, career counsellors are demonstrating the desire to understand the clients' perspective. By adopting clients' style, career counsellors are better able to achieve an empathic relationship. Further, the degree of similarity that clients perceive will enhance the counsellors' interpersonal attractiveness.

Counsellor traits

Counsellor expertness and status help to increase client respect. The perception of expertness and status leads clients to be open to counsellors' attempts to influence them and, subsequently, to the likelihood of client change. (Kanfer and Goldstein 1991; Corrigan et al. 1980) For example, when counsellors learn that clients perceive that chances are poor for problem solving, counsellors can draw on their status as experts with certain credibility in such matters and explicitly predict that the problem will be solved. Also, when clients suggest that they cannot be helped with their anxiety about an occupational interview, counsellors can appeal to their own experience in helping clients model and successfully manage interviews. Counsellor credibility increases client respect. The greater the level of credibility, the greater the client's respect for the helper. (Kanfer and Goldstein 1991) Visible evidence of counsellors' competence such as degrees or professional accreditation, information regarding a counsellor's reputation, and the observed verbal and nonverbal behaviour of a counsellor all provide cues by which clients infer the expertise of a counsellor. Behavioural cues—especially those consistent with reputation and with client's expectations—seem especially important in this inference. (Corrigan et al. 1980) Empathy and warmth (Hackney and Cormier 1996) have been demonstrated to increase helper-client relationships. Each of these structuring procedures seeks to mould clients' expectations and feelings about their relationship with counsellors. Social-influence literature suggests that the persuasive qualities of a counsellors and communicators are reliably communicated through counsellors' activity level, amount of social interaction, interpersonal proximity, eye contact, and other nonverbal cues. (Beutler 1983)

Summary

In this paper, I have introduced the idea that career counsellors must attend to the relationship-enhancement aspects of counselling if they are to be successful in developing collaborative relationships with their clients. These relationships are best achieved by using some techniques often used by system family therapists such as joining and accommodation. In addition, other relationship-enhancement methods include structuring, negotiating meaning, and the effective use of counsellor traits that include empathy, expertise, warmth, and experience. Career counsellors who employ these relationship-enhancement methods will form counselling relationships that will ensure client participation and favorable counselling outcomes.

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Engage at work: A worksite learning-to-learn system

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Engage at work: A worksite learning-to-learn system

Gone are the days in which young (or old!) workers can expect organizations to take care of their learning needs. The new generation of workers will identify and act upon:

- visions for their lives and their work
- their current competencies, characteristics, and other assets
- competencies they need to acquire to move toward their visions
- strategies to implement to acquire needed competencies, and
- tools and resources to support their learning strategies

These abilities are essential for a number of reasons:

1 Career development is the responsibility of the individual, and learning is a central component of career development. Leaving anyone other than oneself in charge of learning is self-destructive.

2 Individuals, particularly young individuals, rarely stay with organizations for long periods. Therefore, they must be continually examining what they will need in their next work roles. Their current employers rarely have the need or desire to worry about where young workers are going next.

3 "Security" in today's and tomorrow's work world will be a result of competence and adaptability, rather than loyalty and seniority.

4 Technological and other changes are continuously changing the way work is done, the types of work that need to be done, and the methods for doing particular types of work. Individuals who do not manage their learning effectively become obsolete very quickly.

ENGAGE at Work helps young workers (about 16–24 years old) take charge of their worksite learning. Modern career-development concepts and proven educational theory combine in ENGAGE at Work to bring simple, fun, and effective learning-to-learn experiences to young workers and their supervisors. Five products and accompanying workshops come together to help employers, supervisors, and young workers move from the traditional organization-driven learning approach to a worker-driven approach to learning. The development of ENGAGE at Work was funded through the national Stay-in-School initiative, delivered under the auspices of Youth Programs and Services, Human Resources Development Canada.

Concept

ENGAGE at Work aims to help develop the "ideal" worker, a person who appropriately:

- self-initiates (acts within self-recognized limitations without waiting for a supervisor to give orders, and takes responsibility for these actions)
- self-analyses (works at understanding strengths and areas to improve)
- acquires new competencies (has strategies and tools for improving and acquiring competence)
- works within a bigger life picture (does all of the above within a consciously conceived career path)

ENGAGE at Work, therefore, helps young workers:

1 Develop/clarify their visions. Every decision potentially either moves people closer to their visions or farther away from them. It is imperative, therefore, that young workers have a dream or vision that they can work towards. These dreams include work-related outcomes, personal outcomes, educational outcomes, as well as fulfilled values, beliefs, and interests. If young people are going to follow their hearts (dreams), they need to know where their hearts lie.

2 Understand their current position in relation to their vision. Effective movement towards the vision requires a thorough understanding of current assets: skills, knowledge, activities, personal characteristics, network, materials, and attitudes.

3 Identify needs (gaps between current position and vision). Young workers need to be able to pinpoint their needs, particularly those related to learning. These needs include:
   - long-term (directly vision-related)
   - short-term specific (skills necessary to be competent in a particular role so that one is not fired)
   - short-term generic (general skills that will increase transferability, even if not directly related to one's vision)

4 Set short-term goals (particularly learning goals). Young workers need ways to make decisions about the short-term that will move them toward their visions while being meaningful in the present. They also need to be flexible with these goals.

5 Learn new skills, knowledge, and attitudes. Young workers need strategies and tactics for acquiring competencies they currently do not hold. These include:
   - formal instruction (courses and workshops)
   - self-help—directed (such as reading)
   - self-help—trial and error (systematic self-directed attempts at learning)
   - tutoring (having a co-worker or supervisor provide instruction)

   Part of this learning entails finding how best to learn a specific competency or process, how best to make use of the learning strategy that has been selected, and how to ensure there is some follow-through after the initial learning takes place.

6 Entrench or "own" acquired competencies. After young workers have acquired new skills, they need ways to use these skills so that they do not just fade away. This includes getting help from supervisors and/or co-workers.

7 Enhance or "build" acquired competencies. Once young workers become reasonably competent at newly acquired competencies, they need to work on enhancing these competencies to make them their own. Enhancement strategies may include self-supervision, speciality workshops and seminars, and speciality books, journals, and magazines. Mentors can be helpful here as well. Therefore, young workers require skills that will help them identify potential mentors, select mentors, inform mentors of their needs, give feedback to mentors, and end mentor/protégé relationships.

8 Elaborate on or "challenge" existing competencies. To become excellent at something, young workers will need to find ways to create their own competence by experimenting, teaching, coaching, and/or supervising.
Note: Numbers 5 through 8 above (learn, entrench, enhance, and elaborate) have been adapted from a professional-development model developed by the authors entitled CONDUCT. The idea here is simply to see learning as a developmental process rather than as a "one-shot" event.

9 Identify learning defences and methods for overcoming these defences. People defend against the sources of learning, the content of learning, and the delivery of learning. Some of these defences are listed below:

Defending against learning because of sources

- do not like the personality of the source, therefore do not learn from the source
- do not like the source because of stereotypes, such as race, gender, and culture, therefore dismiss the source
- do not like the source because of credentials or lack thereof, therefore dismiss the source
- do not like the status (subordinate or younger) of the source, therefore dismiss the source

Defending against learning because of the content

- message is contrary to beliefs
- message, if followed, will cause more work
- message, if followed, shows previous practices were incorrect, inappropriate, or inadequate

Defending against learning because of the delivery of the message

- past experience with the delivery method, such as classroom instruction, has been negative
- beliefs about delivery methods ("You can't really learn anything from a TV show.")

ENGAGE at Work does not deal with all of these defences specifically, but they are dealt with indirectly throughout the products and workshops.

Of course, ENGAGE at Work will not resolve all of the above issues for all youth for all time! ENGAGE at Work is designed to provide youth with a solid starting point for looking at themselves, their career development, and their worksite learning. The workshops for youth and their supervisors serve as a launching pad for a journey that will be guided by the ENGAGE at Work products long after the workshops are over.

Implementing new technology through career-development partnerships: The 3-D Approach

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Introduction

The United States Office of Technology Assessment (OTA) observed that, while operating rooms and business offices are markedly more advanced than their counterparts of 50 years ago, today's classrooms still closely resemble those found in the late 1930s (OTA 1988). Since the OTA report was published eight years ago, the school reform movement has escalated. However, for the most part, such efforts have produced minimal, or at best, mixed results. Although in 1996 we see more evidence of the integration of mentally engaging teaching strategies into classrooms, employers and higher-education institutions continue to lament the lack of sophistication, critical-thinking abilities, and technological competence of high-school graduates.

This paper is a summary of a NATCON 1996 presentation that focused on developing a training model for successfully implementing technology into the curriculum of three rural Nebraska (USA) school districts. The primary focus of the presentation was on the preparation of teachers to develop and deliver a curriculum that used technology as a medium to enhance students' critical-thinking skills. The paper expands upon the NATCON presentation by outlining the background of the project, the models, and research base upon which the project is founded and the activities that highlight elements of the 3-D Approach (1995).

Background of the project

In September of 1994, administrators and teachers at a rural Nebraska school district requested assistance from a professor in Teachers College at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln to integrate technology into the district's curriculum. That initial contact became the seed from which the South East Nebraska Educational Technology Innovation Consortium (SENETIC) was conceived. Since that initial seed was planted, two other rural school districts have joined with Teachers College at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln and private consultancies to find ways to jointly support the learning needs of students within the three districts.

Each SENETIC district formed a committee consisting of educators, parents, community members, and school-district administrators to define solvable joint needs based on individual school-districts' strategic plans. The project described in this paper is one product of the numerous meetings held among these three school districts over an 18-month period.

Models and research base

As the consortium members shared visions of how to collaborate most effectively to enhance student learning within the districts, two common themes emerged. These themes flowed from a review of district strategic plans: to enhance learners' critical-thinking skills, and to enable learners to use technology effectively as a learning and productivity tool. The section that follows summarizes the research base underpinning the themes of the critical thinking and the technologically-mediated learning strategies, their impact on student learning, and the relationship between the themes.

Critical thinking

The terminology used to describe *critical thinking* is debatable among scholars. Such terms as *problem solving, reasoning, higher-order thinking, metacognition, creative thinking, clear thinking,* and *good thinking* are terms often closely meshed with *critical thinking*.

Although scholars debate terminology, few argue the importance of critical thinking for our students. The Center for Critical Thinking and Moral Development (1990) called critical-thinking ability crucial to preparing people to adapt to our changing world. Several scholarly reports identify critical thinking as essential for employability and survival in an increasingly complex society (Brown 1990; Center for Critical Thinking and Moral Development 1990; McCrossan and Garrett 1992; SCANS 1991). In a recent scholarly review of literature, McDeavitt-Blodgett (1995) concluded, "Critical thinking currently enjoys a high level of priority in educational plans at all levels."

Given the high level of importance accorded critical thinking, the key question for educators is whether critical-thinking processes can be developed through instruction. Scholars such as Norris (1992), Chaffee (1994), and Webster (1994) maintain that effective instruction can develop critical-thinking processes. John Chaffee, director of the Center for Critical Thinking and Language Learning at LaGuardia College, New York; in his book *Thinking Critically* (1994), notes that thinking can be developed and improved by becoming aware of, carefully examining, and practising the thinking process. Teachers need to learn first how to think critically. Then, teachers need to teach students how to analyse issues, how to make decisions, and how to work systematically toward goals. This process does not come naturally for most people; rather, it must be taught actively and purposefully.

Given the knowledge gained from the scholarly literature, the practical question for SENETIC educators is how to address the need to integrate critical-thinking skills into their curriculum. Some scholars propose critical thinking be taught in a separate course, while others propose infusion of critical thinking into existing courses. Yet others propose using a hybrid teaching model. After reviewing the literature, a philosophical base was adopted to guide the integration of critical thinking into SENETIC curricula. The philosophical guideposts are summarized next, with implications for application of the model.

Compelling evidence indicates it is more effective to teach critical thinking in relevant context. Therefore, it was decided that critical thinking be integrated into existing curricula within the schools. Also, where possible, classroom activities will simulate real-life problems.

Built upon the premise that critical thinking is complex (Clarke and Biddle 1993), yields multiple solutions, includes judgment, emerging meaning, interpretation, uncertainty, and self-regulation, and requires effort, the model developed for SENETIC incorporates ongoing support to facilitate teachers' and students' success in making the necessary paradigm shift. More specifically, teachers will be taught how to progressively move from being the major player in the classroom to taking on the role of facilitator. Once teachers are prepared adequately, the assumption is made that students will be taught how to use critical-thinking strategies effectively. In addition, teachers will be taught how to progressively empower students to take responsibility for authentic assessment appropriate for critical learning. Furthermore, teachers and students will learn how to use dialogic and reflective methods of learning. Students will learn to assess what they hear and read, and they will test their own arguments for underlying paradigms, assumptions, and implications, eliminating denunciation, reflection, and repudiation. Finally, recognizing the relationship between critical thinking and technology, SENETIC teachers will learn how to incorporate technology effectively and appropriately into critical thinking and assessment. The next section summarizes research related to the second theme of the model: technologically-mediated learning strategies.

Technologically-mediated learning strategies

Almost a decade ago, the technology literature recognized the important contribution of interactive technologies to learning improvements (OTA 1988). At that time, when interactive technologies were just beginning to be used in education, the same national-level reports (OTA 1988) provided direction for policy makers to consider while laying ground-work for technology to realize its potential in learning environments. Three of the four recommendations provided by OTA in 1988 are addressed in the SENETIC project: to increase student access; to provide training and support for teachers; and to support research, development, demonstration and evaluation, with emphasis on the link between research and the classroom.

OTA (1988) cited the effective use of computers for tapping higher-order critical thinking skills, calling this use among the "most promising current uses." More specifically, the use of interactive multimedia to appreciate different perspectives on issues was highlighted, as was the ability of students to augment their intelligence via technology, for example, by breaking problems into component parts. Furthermore, computers were noted as effective in helping students visualize abstract concepts.

When the literature review was conducted by OTA in 1988, multimedia technologies as we know them today were in their infancy. However, even at that time, interactive multimedia-based technology was reported to be effective when augmenting critical-thinking ability. In an current meta-analysis of over 300 scholarly studies, McAlister-Kizzier (1995) reported common findings related to the effective use of multimedia in learning environments.

McAlister-Kizzier (1995) reported multimedia effective in large and small groups, with learners of diverse backgrounds, in urban and rural educational settings, with students of virtually all academic abilities, and in all age categories. In a variety of environments, achievement is consistently higher when students work in teams with multimedia, a strategy often used in critical-thinking activities. Studies have reported consistent success for multimedia in diverse settings and with diverse demographic learner profiles. Students working with multimedia often do more work than do students working with comparison learning methods, attend school better, score higher on achievement tests, and report higher levels of motivation.

Furthermore, McAlister-Kizzier reported a marked theme in the research, reporting the ability of instructors to teach more effectively and quickly with multimedia than with traditional lecture/discussion formats. Several studies reported that student-achievement gains were the greatest in the hands of effective teachers; that multimedia gave teachers a vehicle for transporting effective instruction and for teaching effectively across multiple classes, buildings, and even across districts.

In an effort to explain the results in the hundreds of studies reviewed for the meta-analysis, McAlister-Kizzier concluded that multimedia embraces nine factors that are commonly recognized to enhance student learning:

1 active participation
2 interaction
3 relevance
4 frequent feedback
5 repetitive practice
6 motivational elements
7 multi-sensory appeal
8 learner empowerment
9 equity

These factors and their relationship to technology are discussed next, with the nine factors identified in the text by numbers corresponding to those provided in the list above.

With multimedia, which uses a variety of input devices, multiple senses, and continual random feedback, the learner is ensured frequent and multisensory (1)active participation in the learning. Closely related to active participation, multimedia is designed to enable direct and frequent (2) interaction. Hybrid engaging methods are available for the learner to dynamically test, revise, and broaden thinking by interrelating relevance to create meaningful contexts through dynamic interaction. Information placed in meaningful contexts is remembered better than facts placed in an unstructured list; hence the positive effect on learner retention. Learners can fit lessons to individual interest, instructional needs, and assimilation skills. Even in group instruction, multimedia can improve the sophistication of non-linear interaction of the instruction, thus enhancing learner comprehension and achievement, and appealing to less homogeneous learners.

Multimedia provides a medium that demonstrates realistic scenarios to enhance (3) relevance to the learner; and the inherent nature of multimedia design builds in (4) frequent feedback for each individual learner. Additionally, multimedia is a powerful and patient "demonstration" media enabling the learner to use (5) practice skills in a repetitive manner until mastery is achieved.

Learners report many (6) motivational elements of multimedia. Not only is the learner actively engaged, are interested, but the learner also uses a variety of senses, further heightening attention and interest levels. The medium appeals to a variety of cognitive styles. An important element of multimedia is its use of (7) multisensory learning. Not only does this feature appeal to multiple cognitive styles, but it has also been identified as making a significant difference in the ability of learners to understand and mentally execute complex learning. The multisensory learning allows the learner to execute higher learning levels that are closer to application. The visual imagery and rich concrete and abstract examples promote development of a relatively rich semantic network. Without sacrificing realism, multimedia provides the learner with high levels of control over learning.

Furthermore, the use of multimedia, according to McAlister-Kizzier, (8) promotes equity among learners; it is génderless; equally effective for all ability levels, ages, ethnic groups, and diverse backgrounds; and it equalizes time, distance, and facilities. Finally, multimedia (9) empowers learners, with responsibility for initiating learning shifting from teacher to learner, providing a degree of empowerment and independence that even the ideal tutor/student relationship cannot achieve.

In summary, the research provides compelling evidence to support integration of critical thinking and interactive multimedia technologies into the curriculum. The research also supports the systematic preparation of teachers to integrate critical thinking and technology into the curriculum. The body of research described in this section provided the basis for development of the model designed for SENETIC. In the next section, the activities designed for the three-year project will be briefly described, in relationship to the "3-D Approach."

Project activities as related to the 3-D Approach

In this section, a summary of SENETIC activities is presented, using the 3-D Approach (Productivity Point International 1995) as a framework. Although the 3-D Approach was not used in SENETIC project planning, the 3-D Approach is consistent with planning and implementation activities undertaken for the SENETIC project. The 3-D Approach is a planning and implementation approach for technological training that incorporates three components:

1 discovery (needs analysis and skill assessment)
2 design (training plans and support services, including an ongoing communications plan)
3 delivery (implementation and assessment plans)

The activities designed for the SENETIC project are summarized using components of the 3-D Approach as a framework. In the *discovery component*, baseline data were collected and analysed to determine teachers' knowledge levels related to the two project themes. In the *design component*, intensive, ongoing critical-thinking and technology workshops are planned. The critical-thinking and technology consultants will be available online for ongoing support throughout the three-year period. Nine focus groups—which involve all teachers within SENETIC and cut across districts—are organized to develop curricula to infuse critical thinking into the curriculum; to use technology where appropriate as a tool to incorporate critical thinking into the curriculum; and to systematically develop model critical-thinking activities for all content areas and grade levels. To sustain ongoing support beyond the project duration, support teams at each school will be trained to handle progressively more responsible internal support related to critical thinking and technology.

In the *delivery component*, each SENETIC school will purchase and implement multimedia technology, accessible to all students and teachers in all three districts. In addition, formative and summative evaluation of all project activities are planned throughout the project. Baseline and annual data will be systematically collected and analysed to measure the critical thinking ability of all students in grades 2 to 12, using consistent assessment instruments across all grade levels at all SENETIC schools. In addition, formative and summative assessment of the critical-thinking training will be conducted throughout the project. Ongoing assessment and communication will take place on the Internet between participants and technology and critical-thinking consultants. Support activities will be tailored, based on this feedback. At the end of the project, the curriculum projects will be available for dissemination through the Internet, on CD-ROM/videotechnologies, and in traditional formats deemed appropriate in 1999. Exemplary critical-thinking activities—those that incorporate technology and those that do not—

will be showcased throughout the project, within and outside the SENETIC schools, using the Internet (or similar technology) to maximize dissemination.

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Job search techniques for the long-term unemployed: Some program experience

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Introduction (by Noah Meltz)

In the 1980s, the economy of Ontario was so strong that the unemployment rate dropped to 5.1% in 1989, the lowest rate of any province. The rate for Canada was 7.5%. Five years later, after the longest period of economic stagnation since the Great Depression of the 1930s, the unemployment rate was almost double—9.6%—just under Canada's 10.4%. During this five-year period there was a huge increase in the number and proportion of the workforce who were long-term unemployed. The purpose of this paper is to describe a program that was successful in finding jobs for the long-term unemployed. Long-term unemployment is defined as being without work and seeking work for more than a year (53 weeks and over).

The paper begins with trends in employment and unemployment, followed by job-search techniques of the unemployed. In the third and main section, Rochelle Meltz describes the successful job-finding program she established, and the factors that underlay its success. The final section offers suggestions for additional assistance for long-term unemployed and persons on welfare.

Trends in employment and unemployment

Table 1 provides summary statistics on employment and unemployment in Ontario from 1989 to 1994. The major developments were:

1. The working-age population grew by 737,000.
2. Employment declined by 80,000.
3. The percentage of the population employed fell from 66.8 to 60.1.
4. The proportion of the population participating in the labour force fell from 70.3%, a historic high, to 66.5%, the level in 1980.
5. The unemployment rate soared from 5.1 to 10.9% in 1992, declining somewhat to a still very high 9.6% in 1994.
6. The number unemployed more than doubled from 280,000 to 609,000 in 1992, easing to 547,000 in 1994.
7. The number of long-term unemployed—that is, persons unemployed for more than a year—shot up tenfold from 9,000 to 92,000.
8. As a proportion of the total unemployed, the long-term unemployed went from 3.3 to 17.1%, almost one in every five unemployed.

These statistics indicate the huge extent to which the Ontario labour force was affected by the recession of the early 1990s.

Of the 92,000 long-term unemployed in 1994, more than half were 25–44 years of age. Older workers represented almost a third of this number, but relatively they suffered the most, with one in every four older workers being unemployed for more than a year, compared with almost one in five for prime-age workers. We know that older workers have the most difficulty in finding work when they are laid off or unemployed as a result of downsizing. What these figures show is the dramatic increase in the number of prime-age workers who became long-term unemployed, shooting up from the same number as older workers, to double the number of older workers. In terms of gender, a somewhat higher proportion of men were unemployed more than a year (19.0%) than women (14.6%).

Table 1 Selected Measures of Employment, Unemployment, and Long-term Unemployment* in Ontario, 1989 to 1994

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Population 15 years and over (000s)	7,851	7,985	8,126	8,284	8,447	8,580
Employment (000s)	5,241	5,226	5,044	5,001	5,089	5,160
Employment to population ratio	66.8	65.4	62.1	60.4	60.2	60.1
Labour-force participation rate	70.3	69.8	68.7	67.7	67.40	66.5
Unemployment rate	5.1	6.3	9.6	10.9	10.6	9.6
Unemployed (000s)	280	351	538	609	604	547
Long-term unemployed* (000s)	9	11	33	71	97	92
Long-term unemployed* as % of unemployed	3.3	3.2	6.2	11.8	16.3	17.1
Age of long-term unemployed* (000s)						
15–24	-	-	40	11	14	11
25ñ44	5	5	19	4	55	52
45+	4	5	10	20	28	28
Gender of long-term unemployed*(000s)						
Male	6	7	19	47	64	58
Female	[3]	5	14	24	33	34

(*) Long-term unemployed are here defined as those out of work 53 weeks and over.
Note: Numbers may not add to total of long-term unemployed due to rounding.
Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Annual Averages 1989 –1994, Catalogue 71-529, Ottawa: Minister of Industry, Science and Technology, 1995.

Methods of job search

Statistics Canada records various methods by which unemployed persons attempted to find work. In Ontario, in 1994, the most-used approach was to check with employers directly (66%). This was followed closely by looking at want ads (65%). Only somewhat more than a third of the unemployed (38%) used a public employment agency, while more than half the unemployed used other methods to try to find work, such as checking with friends or relatives, with unions, or with private employment agencies (Statistics Canada, *Labour Force Annual Averages 1989–1994*, Catalogue 71-529, Ottawa: Minister of Industry, Science and Technology, 1995). For the long-term unemployed all, of these methods were not successful. Something more was needed than the traditional approaches.

A program directed to the long-term unemployed (by Rochelle Meltz)

JobsOntario was initiated by the New Democratic Party of Ontario as a way to help those at the lowest end of our society—the long-term unemployed and people on welfare. The programs were designed to train and help these people get jobs. My assignment was to train these long-term unemployed in all aspects of job search and instruct them on how to keep their long-sought-after job. The course I designed was not unlike that given by the Ontario Job Finding Clubs, but a number of aspects of the course had to be changed to suit the needs of my students. It is to this that I will now address my remarks.

The original JobsOntario training program was a one-week course in which as many areas of job search as possible were crammed into the program. The result was that I was continuously lecturing to students with little time for feedback. This was very unsatisfactory. Students were overwhelmed, and, while the more ambitious got jobs, in general the main body were left confused.

My supervisor then decided that a new three-week program would be instituted covering the same subjects, but allowing for more class participation. This new direction produced immediate results. Depending upon the time of year (it was difficult to place students completing the program at the end of December) and the skills of my class, the rate of job success for those who were job ready ranged from 60% to 80% (excluding the end of December class), with the average around 75%. Students were encouraged by the efforts of their classmates, and the success rate rose appreciably when one or more gained employment early in the program.

The main body of my students, who numbered in the hundreds, came from people who had heard of JobsOntario and came to enquire about our programs. All those accepted by JobsOntario were eligible for my program, the only requirement being that their English be sufficient to participate in my class. Group sizes ranged from 12 to 20 students. The class was entirely voluntary, so we can assume that most of them were motivated to get a job. The only financial assistance we provided was bus and subway tickets for transportation for them to attend and, for those who required day care, three months were provided free so that mothers could attend the course and also conduct their job search. We also had referrals from Canada employment centres (CECs), immigrant organizations, and job-finding clubs who generally worked with people on Unemployment Insurance.

Aside from the fact that all my students were long-term unemployed, they came from varied backgrounds. My class consisted of the illiterate, unable to read and write, to people with Ph.D.s. Their ages ranged from early 20s to close to 60 years of age. A majority of the students were women.

My course outline generally followed the same program as the job-finding clubs, but with modifications. These changes often included spending longer periods of time on certain areas than others, as needed. It is my modifications that I wish to address.

The beginning: Career goals and planning for the future

The first few days of the course consisted of my helping the students develop their career goals. These goals often ranged from far beneath the students' skills to wildly unrealistic. Students with little education generally tended to have unrealistically high goals, while the highly skilled favoured menial-labour job goals. To help the students develop acceptable goals, I discussed the findings from Human Resources Development Canada publications such as *Jobs of the Future A Guide for Youth* (Ottawa-Hull: Human Resources Development Canada, 1993), and *Job Futures: An Occupational Outlook to 1995* (volumes 1 and 2, 1990 edition, Toronto: Nelson Canada in cooperation with the Department of Employment and Immigration, Minister of Supply and Services Canada). I also drew material from the book that I co-authored, *Taking Charge: Career Planning for Canadian Workers* (Toronto: Captus Press, Iguana & Associates, 1992).

My objective was to indicate other career options that were available, their requirements, pay scales, and job prospects. While the data in these books are now quite old, I have been informed by Human Resources Develoment Canada that the occupational-outlook data will basically remain the same to the year 2000. Since the goals of most of my students were to make enough money to feed themselves and their families and pay for lodging, forcing them to deal with their future was for them a major change in their way of thinking.

Budgeting was part of planning for the future. The only ones who had done any budgeting were, not surprisingly, persons who were accountants. Since most of the students' income was spent on food and shelter, we discussed recipes for cheap meals and how to contact agencies for subsidized housing. Other areas under discussion included cheap entertainment ideas, shared babysitting, the names of second-hand-clothes and sports shops, and how to get furniture and appliances free (patrol the streets of fancy areas on Wednesdays for large pickup items that people have thrown away). While some found a few of my ideas unacceptable, it did encourage them to think thrifty. One interesting observation I made was that, although this segment of the population had much less disposable income, they rarely searched for food specials advertised in local newspapers.

Stage 2: Preparation for job search

Using an approach common to most job-search programs, I helped the students develop résumés, covering letters, calling cards, and sample applications. Everything was made as easy as possible for the students, and the draft résumés and covering letters were fill-in forms. Many of the students had never developed a résumé or covering letter, so I spent considerable time discussing their purpose and function. The calling cards were replicas from the Highlights of Qualifications from their résumés. The most difficult areas for them to fill in on the sample applications were "Are you bondable?" (no one knew what that meant, so they usually responded "no"), and "salary expectations" (I suggested saying "negotiable").

Stage 3: Calling employers

Calling employers for job interviews was perhaps the most difficult for my students. They had been out of the job market for such a long time that most did not know what to say. In addition, I always had a large proportion of people for whom English was not their first language. I developed variations of a script that the students were required to practise with each other and then try on the phone. Because they lacked confidence, a number were reluctant to make the first phone call. As a result, I did some model calls. I found that the later I waited to do this in the program, the more successful I was.

Stage 4: The job interview

The job interview section continued over a number of days. It first consisted of distributing a list of 15 possible questions that employers are likely to ask. We discussed possible answers to the questions, and the students practised including them with others that they asked of each other. When they felt they were ready, we used a video camera to do a dress rehearsal of their potential inteview. Using the 15 possible questions as a basis, the students took turns being the boss so that they would experience how it felt to be in a position of authority as well as how to act as an employee. It was interesting to observe the rise in self-confidence level when the students took their turn as boss.

Stage 5: Dress rehearsal for the interview

The last component of the job interview section consisted of the students coming to class dressed for an interview. Each was requested to bring a tape so that they could take the results of their efforts home with them. To emphasize the "don'ts" of a job interview, I usually acted as a potential employee and tried to include all the negative things that an applicant might do. In particular, I acted out any attitude problems that I might have observed in that class. This was also reinforced in class by a discussion of attitude, do's and don'ts. I found this preferable to confronting the student. In some cases where the class was being disrupted, however, I also had to have a private talk with the student.

Stage 6: How to keep a new job

Preparation for how to behave in a work atmosphere was an important component of my program. Since the students were all long-term unemployed, most had difficulty relating to arriving at work on time, fulfilling job expectations, and relating to supervisors. Videos of job situations were especially useful for this part of the course. I particularly recommend *Training of Employees: Communication Skills Dealing with Supervisors,* 1989. (For a list of other suggested videos on job-search techniques, see Appendix 1). We also did some role-playing of situations. Asking each student, "What would you do if...?" and filling in the blanks to suit the students' potential job was another effective tool. I also asked one of my colleagues who had operated her own business to give a presen-tation to the students about what would be expected of them at work.

Other needs of the long-term unemployed

Because of the nature of my students' backgrounds, I tended to have an abnormally high number of people with behaviour problems that had to be addressed. Occassionally, there was a confrontation between students, and we had to suspend the text to deal with them. It is worth noting that almost all major arguments revolved around religion. A very high proportion of the students were religious and quite intolerent of other faiths. I suspect that, for most of these people, religion was one of the few constants in their lives and therefore extremely important as a comforting agent. During such confrontations I usually made myself an observer and encouraged the other students to help defuse the situation. This exercise forced them to use their negotiating skills.

Since all my students were long-time unemployed, it was imperative that I also confront their other needs in order to make them job ready. This included dealing with emotional problems, self-confidence building, family stress, and on more than one occassion breaking up verbal and physical fights, as I have previously stated.

Unlike most of the students in job finding clubs, almost none in my class were job ready when they entered my course. The first week was devoted not only to providing them with some job-search tools, but encouraging the students to work together. By the end of the second week the students had usually become, if not friends, at least accepting of each other. Unfortunately, the old saying that "Familiarity breeds contempt" seems to apply here, as most of the arguments occurred during this period. By the third week, I had reduced the time I spent talking to allow the students to proceed on their own. My function had changed to that of guidance counsellor.

By the final week, most had become friends and were working together. Without my suggestion, someone in each three-week group always proposed that they exchange phone numbers. To encourage this attitude, I suggested that we have a luncheon on the last day of class and each person bring an item of food. This was always a big success, as was the certificate that was given out to those who attended the course.

Confidence-building

Confidence-building was always a problem in my program. In the last two weeks of the program, I planned short trips. The Training Centre, where students could research free or cheap training programs, was always a success. Since quite a few students had never visited a Canada Employment Centre, I also arranged for them to have a tour of the facilities and a demonstration of the job machines at a nearby centre.

A trip to the library to explore job resources was another very important outing. Quite a few of my students had never been in a library. I usually took the students there twice—once in the second week and once at the very end of the course. The latter visit was to provide sources from which the students could continue their job search after the program was finished.

One other confidence-building measure that was extremely successful was for all the students to have a manicure, facial, and/or haircut. I thought that if students felt good about the way they looked, they would do a better interview. Since a regular visit to a salon is very expensive, I made arrangements with a nearby school of cosmetology to give my students cut-rate prices. There was only one casualty—a botched haircut that forced a student to wear a baseball cap to a job interview.

I will not discuss other aspects of my course, such as dealing with how to research the visible and hidden job market, discrimination at work, and where to get low or no-cost educational upgrading, because this followed the usual job-training program.

Postscript

Having operated the program for close to two years—from early 1994 to mid-1995—I would offer the following suggestions for additional assistance for long-term unemployed and persons on welfare who have been through a job-finding program:

- Follow-up on participants should be done after one month and three months.
- Students should be encouraged to return to use the facilities.
- A facilitator should be made available once a week on an ongoing basis for those who still need help and encouragement to keep focused on job search.
- An in-house library should be made available, consisting not only of reference books, but of videos on particular topics that the students can access.
- The permanently unemployable should be screened from these courses, and a special program be designed specifically to meet their limited job capabilities.

Appendix 1

Suggested videos for the long-term unemployed (the videos that my students enjoyed the most).

1. Get a Job. Animation, 13 minutes, National Film Board of Canada, 1988.
2. Effective Telephone Techniques, 28 minutes, 1986.
3. Job Search Strategies, 26 minutes, 1986.
4. Résumés that Get Interviews: Interviews that Get Jobs, 34 minutes, 1988.
5. The Career Journey, 27 minutes, 1984.
6. Doing Your Eight, 20 minutes, 1980 (for high-school students).
7. Training of Employees: Communication Skills Dealing with Supervisors, 40 minutes, 1989.

We would like to hear from you. Any comments you might have about our paper, or insights on how you have enhanced your own program, would be much appreciated. Rochelle Meltz and Noah Meltz, 237 Sandringham Drive, Downsview, Ontario M3H 1G2. Telephone (416) 398-3997.

Joint employability programs: Promoting learning and employability in the workplace

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Introduction

The Canadian workplace is undergoing dramatic changes. Factors such as the recent recession, increased globalization, reduction of trade barriers, and increased technological innovation are radically changing how work is being done and who is doing it. There is also a shift in traditional expectations and roles employer and employee. Increasingly, companies are demanding more skilled workers: not only an increase in technical competence but also in basic literacy and numeracy, interpersonal skills to work in teams, and cognitive skills to analyse and synthesize ideas. Employers also expect greater commitment and flexibility to deal with new work processes and increasingly more frequent organizational changes. At the same time, employees must cope with ever greater instability in their work lives including obsolescence of skills, ongoing work redesign, and even the possibility of job loss. The traditional covenant between employer and employee—loyalty and commitment in exchange for the security of a life-time job—is becoming increasingly outdated. Both workers and companies are struggling to redefine their employment relationship to each other in new and mutually beneficial ways.

This paper will examine the efforts of two Ontario companies and their unions who are successfully recasting the traditional employment relationship by actively fostering workplace learning and enhanced worker "employability." The Adjustment Advisory Program—a provincial government program with the mandate of providing labour-adjustment services in Ontario—worked with these two organizations to implement Joint Employability Programs (JEPs) in their work places. This paper describes how the JEPs were initiated, what their key features are, and what the preliminary observations and results were based on the experiences of this project and those in other locations.

The concept of employability

Increasingly, companies and labour groups are encouraging workers to develop skills and knowledge that enhance their own ability to be employed, either in their existing workplace or in some future job opportunity. At the root of this concept of "employability" is the belief that only workers themselves can choose and manage their own vocational paths and the skills they may require in the future. This shift toward employment security—as opposed to the increasingly unrealistic expectation of job security—signals a greater responsibility and control by employees over their work life. The role of the company and the various other stakeholders (like unions, educators, the community, and government) is to provide an environment and the tools that support continual employee-centred learning in the workplace. The individual benefits by being more prepared for changing work circumstances. The company also benefits:

> Under the old covenant, employees entrusted major decisions affecting their careers to a parental organization. Often the result was a dependent employee and a relatively static workforce with a static set of skills. Under the new covenant, employers give individuals the opportunity to develop greatly enhanced employability in exchange for better productivity and some degree of commitment to company purpose and community for as long as the employee works there. (Waterman 1994, p. 88)

The concept of enhanced worker employability seems to fit well with recent organizational development trends including team manufacturing processes, worker empowerment, and development of the learning or knowledge-creating organization.

Barriers to workplace learning

While learning in the workplace is generally acknowledged as being important, in reality it is difficult to achieve. Current statistics suggest that only 35% of US companies provide any type of training. Within those, 70% of the available funds are committed to programs for upper-level managers and supervisors. (Tate 1995, p. 31) Where there are non-mandated tuition-assistance programs in place, less than 7% of the workforce participates. (Tate 1995, p. 34)

The barriers to workplace learning occur at many different levels and involve attitudinal, resource-based, and systemic issues. Workers may be reluctant to engage in learning because of time and financial restraints. They may also be mistrustful of the company's motives in promoting learning (perhaps a prelude to lay-offs). They may be reluctant to go back to school, especially if they have been away from formal learning for a long time. Employees may also be unclear about their company's future skill requirements and how the world of work has changed in the last few years.

Companies may perceive workplace education as a cost, not as an investment—a perspective that is reinforced by short-term planning and an emphasis on a quarterly profit system. On a very practical level, companies may not have the resources for tuition-assistance programs or may not be able to cover back wages for employees who are training on company time. As human-resources departments are being reduced, there are fewer staff available to coordinate educational programs and to ensure that adequate career planning occurs. As well, some companies also find it very difficult to forecast their long-term skill needs.

Educational service providers, long accustomed to a static customer base, are often not able to respond flexibly enough to the needs of employed adult learners. For example, basic services (like course registration, student advising, or even purchasing of course texts) and policies (regarding the transfer of credits, or recognition of prior learning or residency requirements) are still largely geared to the needs of full-time students. (Flynn 1994, p. 15)

These are only some of the difficulties that arise in promoting workplace learning. Clearly, any attempt to move forward requires that the complexity of the issue be acknowledged and that each party's concerns be addressed.

Joint employability programs (JEP)—goals and history

JEP's are long-term partnerships between company, labour, educators, and government to provide workers with learning opportunities centred on their own abilities and aspirations. This goal is achieved by:

- reducing internal systemic barriers that hinder employee-centred learning (see above)
- helping employees clarify and take greater responsibility for their future vocational opportunities
- coordinating educators to provide more effective service to learners
- promoting ongoing learning to all employee groups

In Ontario, several JEPs began in the early 1990s with the assistance of federal and provincial government funding. The JEP model is based, in part, on the experiences of the Council for Adult and Experiential Learning (CAEL), a nonprofit organization that has pioneered workplace learning initiatives in the US since the early 1980s. In 1992 alone, CAEL, as a neutral broker, designed and administered 33 JEP-like programs in 25 states.

In Ontario, one company—a large automobile manufacturer employing 16,000 people—initiated a JEP in 1992. At that time, the auto industry was very volatile. There was competition between various manufacturers and also among the various parts of each company. One of the company's sister plants had permanently closed its doors, and others in Ontario were downsizing their workforces. Both management and the union were concerned that their workers would not be able to adapt to new manufacturing processes and technologies. Company-mandated training was not enough. A tuition-refund program was in place, but only 2 to 4% of the workforce was using it. The union realized that workforce changes were to become a fact of life. They were seeking ways to "immunize" their workforce against the coming dislocations (above and beyond job security measures in their collective agreement).

Another company, a manufacturer of sophisticated telecommunications equipment, began a JEP for many similar reasons. The company employs about 1,000 people. Both the company and the union were concerned about potential layoffs and about the ability of the employees to adapt to the necessary changes that would arise as a result of constantly changing manufacturing technology. As the chairman of one of the union locals stated: "...we had just endured another exercise in downsizing, which negatively impacted our technical members. Our frustration lay in the fact that as our members were being surplused, Engineering grads continued to be hired." (Loughheed 1994, p. 1)

The affected employees were encouraged, and assisted in getting the necessary education to allow them to get the new job openings. It was soon realized that this initiative should be enhanced and extended to all employees. In 1994, after two years of internal development, the company and union launched their own JEP named the "Return to Learning Program." The mission statement reads: " [The company] and [the union] are committed to an Adult Learning program designed to accommodate the many diverse learning needs of its employees. This group will support flexible and personalized learning opportunities that will respond to employees' changing needs." (Loughheed 1994, p. 1)

JEP key elements

While each JEP took on its own unique character, both Ontario projects (and those in the US) share the same key components that are described below. (Keeton 1993)

Successful JEPs are built on a strong foundation of *ongoing employer and employee involvement.* The first step is the establishment of a joint company/union committee, which develops and oversees the JEP. This committee first decides on the objectives, scope, and design of the JEP and advocates for its acceptance within the organization. The committee hires and supervises those who are responsible for the day-to-day operation of the program. Once the JEP is operating, the committee continues to identify and break down barriers that hinder workplace learning and, on a practical level, formulates JEP policies and adjudicates contentious learning requests.

The JEPs in Ontario have consistently chosen *a neutral third party* to implement and coordinate the program on a day-to-day basis. The third party could be a private consultant or a community-based nonprofit organization that has expertise in promoting workplace learning and is familiar with local educational service providers. This neutral third party (a) facilitates the partnership among all the parties, (b) establishes the network of educational service providers and helps them establish new services, (c) offers "one-stop" shopping for employees in the areas of counselling, educational resources, and advocacy, and (d) generally administers the program. The issue of neutrality is important from several perspectives. Employees may be apprehensive about the company's motives and may feel more comfortable discussing their vocational options with an outside professional. The third party, while knowledgeable about educational service-providers, does not itself provide educational services. This arms-length relationship allows it to advocate and negotiate with service providers to ensure that the best educational programs are offered. From the employer's perspective, the neutral third party often is less expensive than having company employees do the same work. The Ontario JEPs have generally utilized one to three full-time staff for day-to-day operations. Once the program is running smoothly, the company can continue with the third party or use its own employees to run the program.

One of the first challenges that the committee faces is the implementation of *a relevant tuition-assistance system*. Above all, the system must be flexible enough to allow workers to make their own choices about their educational options. Most tuition-assistance programs are, to a greater or lesser degree, controlled by the employer. However, the element of worker choice is a basic adult learning principle, which maintains that:

> ...for a learning program to succeed, the learner's motivation and persistence in pursuing it are crucial. To keep motivation and persistence high, the learner must have an active role in deciding what to learn and why; be involved in the choice of provider, scheduling and other key decisions; and finally, understand what the other stakeholders have to gain from his or her participation. (Keeton 1993 p.157)

While some courses that employees choose seem to have little to do with their work (for example, an assembler taking a course in floral design), the vast majority of program participants, given a choice, take courses that are related to their work. It should also be noted that most courses are taken on employee time. Another important feature of JEPs is prepaid tuition. While paying tuition out of one's own pocket and waiting several months for reimbursement may not be a problem for higher-income employees, for many workers, paying for courses in advance is a financial deterrent. In this case, the employer pays the service provider directly, and the student must provide proof of successful completion. Finally, the program should be available to all employees in the organization. As mentioned previously, only a small amount of educational funds reach non-college educated workers. Equal access to educational funding is the necessary precondition to promote learning in all parts of the organization. While the exact amount generally varies, in both companies mentioned here, each employee is entitled to $2000 per year in tuition assistance.

Outreach to employees must be proactive and ongoing, and must utilize multiple strategies. It is not enough to assume that with funds in place, employees will readily start taking courses. Potential learners need to understand the employability concept, their options, and the supports that are available to them. JEPs have used newsletters, posters, and kiosks in the company lunchroom to reach potential learners. One group kicked off their program by doing a needs survey that asked employees what types of courses they wanted and their current barriers to learning. JEP staff have made presentations to employee teams and their supervisors. JEP participants are often integrally involved in promoting the program to their fellow employees. Outreach also needs to be extended to the supervisors, managers, and union officials who have influence and a stake in their employees' development. In one case, a video was produced featuring key company and union members describing their rationale and support for the program.

JEPs focus much of their energies on *employability development* or helping employees to identify, develop, and implement their learning goals. This is done through group workshops, individual counselling sessions, and informal discussions that help workers (a) assess their goals and skills, (b) identify and overcome their barriers to going back to school, and (c) understand the changing labour market and the skills that are needed both within their own company and in general. Ultimately, the goal is to help workers develop personal learning or employability plans that guide their vocational choices. From the company's perspective, the learning plan represents a certain accountability that tuition monies are being spent on a worthwhile endeavour.

Advocacy to, and coordination of, educational service providers is key to ongoing success of the program. The JEP reduces the bureaucratic red tape that learners face and helps them decide which service provider is most appropriate for their needs. Where numerous learners have identified similar interests, the JEP negotiates and coordinates the program with service providers.

Finally, JEPs play a very active role in promoting *prior learning assessment (PLA) services* to workers. For many people, their learning happens informally or occurred a long time ago. JEPs sponsor PLA portfolio-development courses and assist workers to negotiate academic credits with educational service providers. This process legitimates workers' previous experiences and reinforces the desire for ongoing learning.

Some preliminary outcomes

In both Ontario examples, the JEPs have very clearly met their initial objective of increasing workplace learning. In the case of the automobile manufacturer, employee participation in non-mandated learning programs rose from 4 to 14% within three years. For the telecommunications equipment manufacturer, within 11 months of JEP start-up, 41% of employees participated in courses and 54% participated in the

JEP's other services such as use of the lending library, career counselling, and educational advising services.

While it may be too early to fully evaluate the impact of JEPs on company productivity and on workforce employability, an Interim Impact Assessment of the JEP in the auto manufacturing facility (Dean 1993) and an evaluation of three JEPs in the US (Flynn 1994) provide some useful observations.

- Both the employer and employee participants reported an improvement in their skill levels. As noted above, there was a dramatic increase in the number of employees who became engaged in some type of learning activity as a result of the program. Other studies have corroborated that between 85 and 90% of program participants, given a choice, took courses that were related to their work. (Flynn 1994, p. 5).
- The companies found that the JEP was a cost-effective way of promoting workplace learning. First, the majority of the learning occurs on employee time. This automatically eliminates worker replacement costs—usually the most expensive part of traditional training. Second, the use of the third party as a broker of educational services has meant more relevant and cost-effective services are negotiated.
- Employees spoke often of increased self-confidence and higher morale at work. "I now even enjoy coming to work. I feel better about myself and I know work is only a means to an end. I feel 'up' and have more energy even though I'm burning at both ends." (Dean 1993, p. 17)
- Employees often reported an increase in their employability and in their ability to cope and adapt to changes that might occur in the future. This benefitted both the employee and the employer. "Employers reported that participants demonstrated greater communication, teamwork, and problem-solving skills as well as a greater understanding of the goals and mission of the company. As a result, employers indicated that employees were more receptive and better able to respond to new technologies and changes in work organization." (Flynn 1994, p. 6)
- The JEP is also an interesting model of proactive labour adjustment. It prepares workers for the many changes that may occur in the future, without the crippling financial and personal pressures that are a normal part of lay-offs and job loss. JEPs encourage workers to begin the process of being "actively independent" about their work direction while they are still at work. It allows them to gain new skills and try out various vocational options while in the safety of their current workplace. In the event of a lay-off, their employment security—either within their existing company or in a new workplace—is enhanced.

Perhaps the most telling endorsement of the JEP concept is that both Ontario companies continue to commit to the program, and that, in one case, expansion to other Ontario branch plants is being seriously considered.

Of course there are some substantial challenges facing the wide-spread implementation of JEPs. In a business environment where traditional training is not yet commonplace, the introduction of JEPs may be a substantial stretch for many companies. JEPs require a fundamental shift in the way companies and their workers relate to each other. In those companies that have JEPs, constant attention must be paid to ensuring that upper management supports the program. In some cases, funding for the JEP has become embedded in the collective agreement as a way of protecting the program. Cost is another issue. Ways must be found to distribute the costs of JEPs among the various stakeholders. Currently a community-based JEP model is being considered where several companies and service-providers might share the costs of the program. Finally, it must be understood that the JEP is only one strategy to improve company productivity and worker employability. It cannot replace traditional training or sound organizational development practices. JEPs can, however, provide a solid foundation for companies and employees who are committed to working together collaboratively in the new workplace.

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La sexualité et le choix professionnel

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Introduction

Malgré le fait que la sexualité et le travail soient des aspects importants de la vie, et étroitement liés à sa perpétuation, on constate une disette d'information sur le lien entre la sexualité et le choix professionnel. Les seuls théoriciens à traiter le moindrement de la question sont les psychanalystes, et leurs ouvrages de référence ont semblé se tarir dans les années 1950. Une récente recherche documentaire n'a produit que huit articles, dont cinq portaient sur le counselling d'homosexuels. Pareille pénurie est sans doute liée à l'ethnie. Jusqu'aux années 1950, le domaine de la psychologie vocationnelle était l'apanage des psychanalystes européens relativement libéraux. Plus récemment, le sujet a été pratiquement monopolisé par les Américains plutôt conservateurs.

Lors d'un débat touchant de près le présent sujet, l'éminente spécialiste Lenore White Harmon (Harmon 1994) a abordé la question de l'amour et du travail. Elle a cerné au plus près ce sujet lorsqu'elle a abordé le concept freudien de la sublimation du sentiment érotique. Dans son analyse, elle aspirait à un milieu de travail qui nous permette d'exprimer nos émotions les plus profondes, notamment l'amour. Bien que son concept soit fondé sur un amour altruiste, ses principaux arguments demeurent valables si l'on inclut le sentiment érotique dans sa définition. Si vous ne pouvez pas aimer votre travail, votre satisfaction proviendra de l'amour que vous portez aux personnes avec qui vous travaillez. Pour quelle autre raison attacher de l'importance aux intérêts ou à la satisfaction professionnelle?

Le présent article analyse divers aspects du perfectionnement et du choix professionnels. Il traite d'un large éventail de carrières, de professionnels et de personnes, y compris les secrétaires, le personnel infirmier, les agents de bord, les ingénieures, les homosexuels, les vendeurs, les prostituées, les conseillers d'orientation et les psychoéducateurs. Mais commençons d'abord par résumer ce que disent les psychanalystes de la sexualité et des professions.

Psychanalystes

Il n'est pas étonnant que la théorie psychanalytique offre une matière abondante sur le sujet qui nous intéresse. La psychanalyse est singulièrement en mesure de nous éclairer sur les motivations inconscientes et souvent irrationnelles de certaines pratiques sociales institutionnalisées. Selon les psychanalystes, le processus même d'identité masculine implique un rejet et un rabaissement inconscients de la féminité, correspondant exactement à ce que nous allons observer dans plusieurs professions. Même les conclusions de la recherche appuient la proposition initiale de Freud voulant que le travail et l'amour soient tous deux des éléments essentiels d'une saine fonction psychologique (Vaillant 1977).

Freud (1930/1976) explique le choix des objets de notre affection par une fixation sur les parents, qui est liée à l'idéal du moi. Au travail, les membres du groupe mettent le chef à la place de leur idéal du moi et les autres membres à la place de leur identité du moi. Les aspects sexuels de l'Éros sont le plus souvent sublimés, mais ont tendance à faire surface de toutes sortes de façons inconscientes ou subconscientes, souvent lorsque l'on s'y attend le moins. Nombre de plaisanteries citées dans *Le mot d'esprit et ses rapports avec l'inconscient*, de Freud (1912/1988), ont pour thèmes les professions.

C'est dans cette logique qu'Anne Roe (1956) estimait que le patron de développement des aptitudes est déterminé principalement par les directions dans lesquelles se canalise la libido. Barbara Lantos (1944) allait encore plus loin. Elle estimait qu'idéalement le travail et la sexualité ont une interaction stimulante, une vie sexuelle saine augmentant le plaisir de travailler et la réussite au travail favorisant une vie sexuelle saine.

Gais et lesbiennes

Bien qu'il existe une multitude d'articles subjectifs sur le counselling des gais et des lesbiennes dont certains sont excellents (Hervieux 1995), on trouve très peu d'information empirique sur le développement de carrière au sein de ce groupe. La recherche documentaire n'a produit que deux articles sur ce sujet. Le premier (qui est cité dans presque tous les articles ultérieurs) a établi que les gais manifestent un plus fort taux d'incertitude et d'insatisfaction professionnelle à l'égard de leur choix de carrière que les hétérosexuels. Les lesbiennes, en revanche, affichaient les plus faibles taux d'insatisfaction et d'incertitude à l'égard de leur choix professionnel (Etringer, Hillerbrand et Hetherington 1990).

Le second article porte sur les intérêts professionnels des gais (Chung et Harmon 1994). Dans cette étude, l'*Orientation par soi-même* de Holland (1985) fut appliquée à un groupe de gais et à un groupe d'hétérosexuels. Selon le classement de Holland, les gais manifestaient un penchant pour les domaines artistiques et sociaux. Les catégories A et S comprennent des professions telles que compositeur, acteur, professeur de langue, interprète, couturier, écrivain, musicien, ministre du culte, infirmier, coiffeur, bibliothécaire et conseiller d'orientation. L'article ne comportait aucune mention de causalité ou de relation avec les stéréotypes de «professions gaies».

Il ressort de ces deux articles que les choix professionnels des gais et des lesbiennes sont tout à fait particuliers. L'une des raisons possibles de ce caractère particulier peut se trouver dans une note sur la méthode employée pour ces deux articles. Les échantillonnages des gais n'étaient pas aléatoires mais bien fondés sur ce que les chercheurs ont qualifié de réseaux, à savoir que des personnes ont invité leurs amis à se porter volontaires pour cette recherche. Il s'agit là également d'une méthode employée par les conseillers d'orientation pour aider leurs clients à se trouver un emploi ou à développer leur carrière.

En voici un exemple : il y a quelques années, le service de police d'une administration régionale, que je ne nommerai pas, a décidé qu'il était temps de commencer à embaucher des agents féminins. Le meilleur endroit pour les recruter, a-t-on pensé, était parmi les préposées au stationnement. Ces femmes connaissaient déjà le système, avaient une bonne formation en application des règlements et s'adapteraient facilement à la culture policière. On était loin de se douter que ces préposées avaient souvent des amies qui avaient trouvé un bon et honorable emploi où elles pouvaient afficher plus ou moins ouvertement leur orientation sexuelle, parce que la majorité d'entre elles étaient des lesbiennes. L'embauchage terminé, quelqu'un fit observer aux administrateurs innocents que tous les nouveaux agents sans exception étaient des lesbiennes! Il est à remarquer à l'honneur de ce service de police qu'il n'entreprit pas de régler le prétendu problème en congédiant ces femmes, mais bien en recrutant par la suite dans le grand public plutôt qu'à l'interne.

Un autre facteur déterminant du choix professionnel semble être un mélange subtil d'intérêt et d'homophobie. Dans un excellent ouvrage sur les gais dans les sports, Brian Pronger (1990) souligne que, d'ordinaire, les membres gais d'organisations sportives traditionnelles ne se sentent pas libres d'exprimer leur sensibilité. La masculinité orthodoxe s'exprime le plus clairement dans les sports d'équipes violents, mais elle se rencontre également, à des degrés divers, dans tout l'univers sportif. Il n'y a pas lieu de s'étonner que les disciplines esthétiques ou individuelles attirent le plus de gais. Ces sports comprennent la gymnastique, le patinage artistique, la natation et le rugby australien.

Un exemple de préjugé lié au facteur artistique m'est fourni par mon voisin de bureau. Il raconte qu'il a toujours voulu devenir danseur de ballet, mais que son père l'a obligé à pratiquer le hockey jusqu'à l'âge de 16 ans. Il était un joueur de hockey moyen, mais estime qu'il aurait pu être un danseur exceptionnel. Il est grand, fort, beau et a une bonne coordination et un sens artistique.

Pour de nombreux gais et lesbiennes, il est important de trouver une profession où ils seront acceptés pour ce qu'ils sont. Certains quitteront même des carrières lucratives qui ont requis des années d'études supérieures pour des emplois où ils seront acceptés. C'est pourquoi le U.S. National Gay and Lesbian Task Force (1989) a publié une liste des entreprises américaines qui ont énoncé une politique d'ouverture à l'égard de l'orientation sexuelle de leurs employés.

Le choix professionnel peut être déterminé par un facteur plus altruiste. Dans son étude sur les infirmiers et les femmes soldats dans le corps des Marines des États-Unis, Christine Williams (1989) dit que de nombreux gais sont attirés par la profession d'infirmier parce qu'elle leur permet de soigner des victimes du sida. Cependant, la perception du caractère gai de cette profession semble constituer un obstacle important à l'accès d'un plus grand nombre de candidats masculins. De même, les coiffeurs perdent de l'argent parce que des clients réclament souvent des coiffeuses en raison de leur propre homophobie et de la perception d'une prédominance de gais dans cette profession.

Les lesbiennes éprouvent des difficultés particulières malgré le fait qu'elles semblent plus satisfaites de leur choix professionnel que les gais et les hétéros. 85 % des lesbiennes ont un emploi, comparativement à 50 % des femmes hétérosexuelles, mais les deux tiers d'entre elles craignent de perdre leur emploi si elles révèlent au travail leur orientation sexuelle (Morgan 1991), ce qui a deux conséquences : (1) les lesbiennes tendent à révéler leur orientation plus tard que les hommes et risquent davantage, de ce fait, de se retrouver dans un milieu de travail qui leur est hostile; (2) elles sont souvent perçues comme célibataires et sans attaches, si bien qu'elles sont souvent sujettes à des mutations ou à des demandes qui ne tiennent pas compte de leur partenaire (Parkin 1989). Enfin, la plus secrète des deux partenaires peut se sentir particulièrement menacée dans sa sécurité d'emploi. D'où ces tee-shirts sur lesquels on peut lire : «Je ne suis pas une lesbienne, mais ma blonde en est une.»

Secrétariat et plusieurs professions connexes

Le secrétariat constituait encore en 1990 l'un des premiers choix de carrière des adolescentes (Gagné et Poirier 1990). De fait, 10 professions traditionnellement féminines représentent encore 55 % des choix professionnels des adolescentes. Et c'est là que se manifeste d'abord le rabaissement inconscient de la féminité dont parlent les psychanalystes.

Où donc est le lien avec la sexualité? Le secrétariat n'est certes pas une carrière sexy. Là comme dans plusieurs autres professions axées sur le service, le rôle de la sexualité est dans la perception qu'ont les hommes de celles qui sont à leur service. De fait, les secrétaires choisissent souvent de changer de carrière pour échapper au harcèlement sexuel. À telle enseigne que Rosemary Pringle (1989) affirme que le secrétariat est la carrière la plus sexualisée sur le marché du travail après le commerce du sexe. C'est également ce qui explique que la secrétaire est la victime traditionnelle du harcèlement sexuel.

Selon les ouvrages consacrés à ce sujet, la secrétaire peut jouer tous les rôles et servir d'épouse, de maîtresse, de mère ou de fille. Legman (1975) va même jusqu'à inclure les secrétaires et les infirmières dans un chapitre consacré à la prostitution! Les patrons choisissent souvent leur secrétaire en fonction de leur propre prestige plutôt que de critères d'efficacité organisationnelle. Ils s'attendent à des services personnels, envahissent la vie privée de leur employée, négocient des limites en privé, exigent une loyauté absolue et vont même jusqu'à emmener leur secrétaire avec eux lorsqu'ils changent de poste. Le problème des secrétaires est qu'elles n'ont aucun pouvoir et qu'elles sont souvent aux prises avec une relation patriarcale totalement en marge de l'organisation moderne du travail.

Ainsi, le cheminement de carrière d'une secrétaire sera le suivant. Une jeune fille quitte l'école prématurément parce qu'elle a besoin d'un revenu, parce qu'elle n'aime pas les études ou tout simplement parce qu'elle doit payer celles de son mari. Après une brève période de formation, elle entre sur le marché du travail, généralement en qualité d'employée temporaire, à mi-temps et à faible salaire. Elle accédera éventuellement à une situation plus stable et devra alors naviguer entre les écueils que sont les rôles sexuels, les stéréotypes et les insinuations malveillantes. Le plus souvent, elle passera le reste de sa carrière à tenter d'en sortir.

La future infirmière, de son côté, choisira d'ordinaire sa profession pour des motifs altruistes et devra suivre un cours universitaire rigoureux. Un ouvrage fort instructif sur cette profession est le rapport Williams (1989) sur les infirmières et infirmiers du corps des Marines américains, notamment, les entrevues de l'auteure avec les infirmiers. Selon Williams, l'importance des infirmières tient autant à leur compétence professionnelle qu'à leur rôle de «soutien du moral» des troupes. Les militaires s'attendent à ce que les infirmières leur rendent le même genre de services que leur femme à la maison. Par contre, les infirmières sont la cible de toutes sortes de calomnies. On les accuse de coucher avec les hauts gradés ou d'être des lesbiennes ou des prostituées. Ces femmes, pour leur part, adoptent une attitude défensive à l'égard de ces accusations, se soumettant à de nombreux règlements concernant le mariage, la grossesse et les bonnes moeurs.

Dans les forces armées modernes, les infirmiers ont observé que les infirmières sont souvent victimes de harcèlement de la part des médecins, qui font des plaisanteries sexuelles à leur sujet, leur tapent les fesses, leur crient après ou leur lancent des fiches médicales à la tête. Quant aux patients, ils ont avec elles une relation ambivalente, souhaitant parfois un joli visage auprès d'eux, ou préférant d'autres fois recevoir des soins d'un infirmier, selon les cas.

Il semblerait que le personnel infirmier consacre beaucoup d'efforts à se défendre contre le rôle sexuel qui lui est imposé au travail et à promouvoir son rôle professionnel. Je connais fort peu d'infirmières qui voudraient voir leur fille choisir cette carrière.

Ingénieures et femmes médecins

Bien que les femmes continuent de prouver leur aptitude à réussir et souvent à exceller dans les métiers «masculins», elles se rendent compte que sous les apparences de la réussite, la réalité qu'elles vivent en milieu de travail est différente à maints égards de celle des hommes. Les ingénieures doivent relever plusieurs défis. Par exemple, elles doivent gérer leur sexualité fort différemment de leurs collègues masculins. Un jeune ingénieur peut sortir avec qui il veut : la comptable, une ingénieure ou une secrétaire. Une ingénieure, en revanche, doit prendre soin de fréquenter quelqu'un du même niveau professionnel qu'elle. Supposons qu'elle travaille sur un chantier de construction où elle remarque un ouvrier sympathique et bien bâti. Si elle sort avec lui, elle risque de perdre énormément d'autorité auprès du contremaître et des ouvriers, qui seront moins disposés par la suite à lui obéir. Cette femme court le risque de n'être pas prise au sérieux, de n'être pas écoutée et de ne pas obtenir l'information dont elle a besoin (Sheppard 1989).

Le problème est le même pour un ingénieur gai. Dans un certain cas particulier, le problème fut résolu de façon créative. Le propriétaire macho d'une entreprise de construction avait un fils ingénieur, travaillant pour lui. Le fils était gai. Un jour, celui-ci s'est rendu compte que le meilleur contremaître de son père était également gai. Ils ont entamé une liaison et ont fini par vivre ensemble, sous prétexte que si l'un d'eux avait une idée brillante pour régler un problème de construction, ils pourraient en discuter à toute heure du jour!

Les ingénieures qui voyagent à l'étranger font également face à des difficultés. Dans un article paru dans une revue professionnelle des ingénieurs (Roy 1996), une ingénieure rapporte ceci : «En Afrique, il faut savoir garder ses distances et respecter la culture locale. Alors, ils vous respectent. Bien sûr que j'ai eu des propositions : on m'a même demandé combien je valais de chameaux!» Une autre ingénieure estime que le machisme est en grande partie un mythe : «Et le machisme latin? Nous avons une fausse perception des relations latino-américaines entre hommes et femmes. C'est vrai qu'en général les hommes plaisantent beaucoup à propos des femmes, a-t-elle reconnu. En fait, ils verbalisent tout, mais les relations sont beaucoup plus égalitaires qu'il n'y paraît. Ici, au Canada, les hommes ont un langage 'politically correct', mais ils ne sont pas tous des alliés pour autant et il faut du temps pour déceler ceux qui représentent un obstacle.»

Dans une étude menée en Australie, Redman et autres (1994) ont examiné le problème des femmes dans certaines spécialités médicales. Bien que les femmes décrochent 50 % des diplômes en médecine, elles sont fort peu représentées dans la plupart des spécialités autres que la médecine familiale. Bien que les étudiantes et les internes interrogées aient déclaré que les facteurs les plus déterminants étaient la rigueur de la formation ainsi que l’absence de loisirs et d’horaires souples, la discrimination et le harcèlement sexuels jouent aussi un rôle. Il est rare que des hommes étudiants en médecine connaissent ce genre de problèmes.

Prostitution

Les professions dont nous avons traité jusqu’ici sont toutes de celles que nous pourrions recommander, en tant que conseillers d’orientation, à nos clientes. La prostitution, par contre, est une profession que nous ne souhaiterions surtout pas pour nos clientes. Pour considérer la prostitution dans une perspective de perfectionnement professionnel, toute négative qu’elle soit, il nous faut d’abord prendre un certain recul historique.

Du point de vue de la psychologie évolutionnaire (Buss et Schmitt 1993), une femme qui choisit de s’unir sexuellement à court terme exigera plus de sécurité, de pouvoirs ou de ressources que dans une union à long terme. Dans maintes cultures, les hommes doivent offrir des cadeaux à leurs maîtresses à court terme, et si ces cadeaux sont insuffisants, la femme les rejettera. La prostitution existe dans un grand nombre de cultures, depuis les Aléoutes de l’Alaska jusqu’aux Tonkinois du Viêt-nam, et c’est une forme évidente de relations sexuelles à court terme. Dans ces sociétés, les femmes se prostituent pour des raisons nettement économiques.

Au siècle dernier, les prostituées étaient considérées comme des «filles perdues», mais, en réalité, il semble bien qu’un grand nombre de jeunes filles se livraient à la prostitution parce qu’elles n’avaient guère le choix. Les femmes semblaient travailler à leur compte ou, sans trop de contrainte, dans des maisons closes. Ce n’est que dans les années 1930 que la fonction de souteneur se répandit et que la prostitution, dominée jusque-là par les femmes, fut désormais dominée par les hommes, ce qui a fait apparaître un grand nombre d’intermédiaires ayant intérêt à prolonger le séjour des femmes dans la rue (Walkowitz 1980). Par les temps durs que nous connaissons, il semblerait que les femmes aient tendance à se prostituer pour arrondir des revenus insuffisants et pouvoir fournir le strict minimum à leurs enfants. Ainsi, comme le déclarait Virgile dans *L’Énéide*, en 20 avant Jésus-Christ : «Crimine ab uno, disce omnes» (Un seul délit dénonce toute la société).

Du point de vue du développement professionnel, des tendances précises se dessinent et un certain nombre de ces femmes affirmeront sans hésitation que leur profession résulte d’un choix conscient. Les prostituées éprouvent des besoins économiques évidents, qu’il s’agisse de subvenir aux besoins de leurs enfants ou à leurs propres besoins de drogue. Ce serait faire preuve de naïveté, pour un orienteur, de prétendre convaincre ces femmes d’aller faire cuire des hamburgers chez MacDonald, alors qu’elles gagnent 50 000 $ par année, net d’impôts.

En outre, ces femmes dévalorisent la sexualité. Toutes les prostituées que j'ai connues avaient été victimes d'abus sexuels dans leur enfance. Une autre caractéristique propre à cette profession est que ces femmes considèrent la prostitution comme une situation temporaire parce que, à un moment donné, elles n'y seront plus contraintes ou seront devenues trop âgées (ce qui n'est pas sans rappeler les hôtesses de l'air). De toute évidence, la prostitution suit un cheminement de carrière prévisible; de fait, les 12 principes de base de Super (1984) s'appliquent parfaitement (voir l'annexe).

L'une de mes clientes était très fâchée contre une de ses amies qui vendait des systèmes informatiques. Cette amie était fort séduisante et s'habillait de façon provocante, disposant ainsi d'un net avantage sur la concurrence. Mais elle se plaignait que certains de ses clients lui faisaient des avances. C'est ce qui irritait ma cliente, qui estimait que cette vendeuse était exactement semblable à une prostituée, mais en moins honnête. Ma cliente avait elle-même été une prostituée dans sa jeunesse.

Professions de relation d'aide

Malgré les graves préjudices qui en résultent pour leurs clients, 12 % des psychothérapeutes masculins et 3 % des psychothérapeutes féminins ont reconnu, lors d'enquêtes anonymes, avoir eu des relations sexuelles avec des clients (Pope, Sonne et Holroyd 1993). Il est évident qu'un conseiller ne doit jamais exploiter sexuellement un client, bien que pratiquement tous les conseillers éprouveront une attirance sexuelle pour un client à un moment ou à un autre de leur carrière. La façon la plus efficace pour les conseillers de régler le problème est de bien comprendre la nature des transferts et des contre-transferts sexuels, d'être conscients de leurs émotions et de disposer de la formation et des structures de soutien requises pour les aider à les maîtriser. Les professionnels les plus menacés sont ceux qui refusent tout simplement de reconnaître ou même d'éprouver pareils sentiments.

Ce danger n'est nulle part aussi présent que chez les psycho-éducateurs en institution. La sexualité est omniprésente dans leur travail, et pourtant le sujet est notoirement absent de l'ordre du jour de leurs réunions, de leurs programmes de formation et de leurs politiques organisationnelles. Les psycho-éducateurs ont affaire à des adolescents obsédés sexuels, à des handicapés qui se masturbent en public et à des personnes âgées qui recherchent des satisfactions sexuelles et l'intimité, mais la formation du personnel ne va généralement pas plus loin que la contraception et la violence sexuelle. Les cas les plus tristes sans doute sont ceux des employés congédiés pour être tombés amoureux d'un client ayant dépassé l'âge de la majorité. Le risque est élevé, tant pour les patients que pour le personnel, mais les nouveaux employés en sont généralement informés de façon informelle et purement accidentelle par les plus anciens.

La sexualité représente une partie importante du travail des professionnels en relation d'aide. Dans certains domaines, elle peut même constituer un intérêt professionnel. Malheureusement, elle peut également mettre fin à une carrière. Les professionnels coupables d'exploitation sexuelle ne sont pas tous des psychopathes; ils ne font souvent preuve que d'une fâcheuse naïveté. Les étudiants et les praticiens estiment cependant que les programmes de formation laissent grandement à désirer en matière de sexualité.

Conclusions

À la lumière des observations précédentes, il semblerait que la sexualité constitue un facteur de base du choix et du perfectionnement professionnels. C'est clairement un facteur déterminant dans le cas des gais et des lesbiennes, c'est un facteur médiateur pour les secrétaires, les ingénieures et, peut-être, pour les conseillers, et c'est un facteur prédéterminant pour les prostituées. La situation et les déterminants diffèrent dans chaque cas.

Dans toutes les situations décrites ci-dessus, cependant, se retrouve un dénominateur commun, issu de la psychanalyse. Les hommes élaborent et affirment leur masculinité en rabaissant les femmes. Il est essentiel pour nous, en tant que conseillers, d'aider les femmes à comprendre et à traiter les problèmes touchant à la sexualité dans les professions. Mais si nous voulons vraiment entreprendre de résoudre ce problème, nous aurions intérêt à aider les hommes à assumer leur masculinité de façon saine et sensée.

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Annexe

Les 12 propositions de Super

1. Les gens diffèrent entre eux en matière d'habiletés.
2. Chaque personne est apte à exercer un certain nombre d'occupations.
3. Chaque occupation requiert un patron donné d'habiletés, d'intérêts et de traits de personnalité; chaque occupation doit pouvoir correspondre à une certaine variété d'individus.
4. Les préférences et les compétences vocationnelles changent avec le temps et l'expérience.
5. Ce processus de changement peut se résumer en une série de stades appelés stades d'exploration, d'établissement, de maintenance et de déclin.
6. Le patron de carrière est déterminé par le niveau socio-économique des parents de l'individu, par ses aptitudes intellectuelles, ses traits de personnalité et les occasions qui s'offrent à lui.
7. Le conseiller peut guider le développement à travers les stades.

8 Le processus de développement est un processus d'actualisation de l'image de soi.

9 Le processus de sythèse ou de compromis entre l'image de soi et la réalité est un processus d'apprentissage par imitation ou d'apprentissage par rétroinformation.

10 La satisfaction au travail est fonction du degré selon lequel l'individu trouve le moyen d'exercer ses habiletés, d'exprimer ses intérêts, ses traits de personnalité et ses valeurs.

11 La satisfaction qu'on retire du travail est proportionnelle au degré selon lequel on peut y actualiser son image de soi.

12 Le travail offre à la plupart des personnes un cadre pour l'organisation de leur personnalité.

Leadership in career development: An emerging national strategy[1]

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Leadership in career development: An emerging national strategy

Massive changes in the labour market, the structure of opportunity, globalization, and the nature of employment, are leaving people's working lives in a state of "permanent flux." Staying with a single employer for one's working life is now the exception. Several occupations in different fields are rapidly becoming the new norm. Moving back and forth between education and work is expected, and periods of unemployment are commonplace. As a result, increasing numbers of workers need periodic assistance over their entire working lives in order to make informed decisions about their place in the labour market and to acquire the employability skills needed to be competitive and to manage career transitions successfully.

In today's labour market, the Canadian Labour Force Development Board (CLFDB) believes career planning and preparation are necessary for all Canadians, not just for those in crisis. In the past, people usually needed assistance with their career only at major decision points, such as leaving school, graduating from postsecondary institutions, or changing jobs. Now career change is constant, and the demands for services have changed.

Career guidance and counselling in secondary and postsecondary schools is needed to prepare young Canadians—not only to establish initial career directions—but also manoeuvre successfully in a rapidly changing labour market. Career education belongs in core curriculum. Young people must learn how to assess workplace realities, and to seek opportunities for developing both the generic and specific skills they need to get and keep employment. These changes significantly alter the role that career-development services need to play for the average Canadian. Career and employment counselling needs to be broadly available and accessible, particularly in smaller communities where existing services are often limited.

During the past three years, the CLFDB has been a catalyst for discussion and debate about career and employment counselling and the role it should play in labour-force development. The CLFDB is a national, not-for-profit organization, established in 1991 in response to the growing consensus that labour market partners should play a greater role in training and human-resource development in Canada. The CLFDB is made up of partners from business, labour, education, training, and equity groups (women, aboriginal peoples, people with disabilities, and members of visible minorities), working together to develop a highly skilled Canadian workforce that contributes to the well-being of Canadians and a productive and prosperous economy. The notion of working together to bring about positive change is often articulated but seldom translated into key principles of public policy. The CLFDB has created a context for this to happen. Specifically, it provides opportunities for the labour-market partners to conduct meaningful dialogue and build consensus; advocate for more relevant, higher-quality, and accessible training; and provide direction on key aspects of training and labour-adjustment policies and programs. The board's mission is to work towards the creation of a coherent and coordinated system of labour-force development that is equitable, effective, and efficient.

Early in 1995, through the collaboration of the Canadian Labour Force Development Board, provincial labour force development boards, and the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation (CGCF), leaders in career development and employment counselling came together at a series of one-day forums to talk about career development and counselling issues, to identify priorities, and to consider action strategies. Forum participants included leaders from business, labour, visible minorities, aboriginal peoples, persons with disabilities, women, provincial government departments, Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC), elementary and secondary education, colleges, universities, and groups representing the providers and consumers of career-development services. This paper presents the consensus resulting from the forums, followed by one example of how key ideas might be implemented.

Leadership forums

The forums focused on the current state of career-development services for Canadians: How well are the services responding to demand and need? What are the gaps? What needs to be changed? The discussions addressed four key issues:

Leadership The need for strengthened direction and vision that influences public policy and advocates for career development services

Delivery system How to achieve more consumer-oriented and easily accessed services

Standards and training The need for standards for practice in career development to protect consumers and ensure quality service, plus the need for current, affordable, and accessible training for practitioners

Demonstrating value How to develop tools that measure and inform consumers and funders about what outcomes to expect

Results from the forums

Over 200 participants discussed the issues and debated action strategies. The main points of consensus are outlined below.[2]

Leadership

A "Leadership Council" in career development is needed, utilizing a new model of collaboration and drawing from an expanded list of partners. Rather than focusing on career-development practice and practitioners (the role of a professional association), the expanded partnership (economic recovery commissions, employers, labour organizations, consumers) would focus on building bridges to public policy. It would undertake specific roles, such as:

- Public education to help Canadians understand career development and access assistance they need throughout their working lives
- Think-tanks to address critical issues affecting career development, such as problems associated with equating *career* and *success* in an economy where full employment is no longer the norm, separating fact from assumption in the research on youth transition, and revising the concept of "career" to encompass a flexible labour market
- Influence decision makers and policy makers to collaborate, creating a stronger and united voice for change
- Problem-solving on common issues such as basic standards for service delivery and career-development practice

Delivery system

Four themes emerged pertaining to coherence in the delivery system, with all provinces agreeing on the following initial action steps.

Focus on consumers

The process of streamlining the delivery system must be consumer driven. A range of types and levels of service are needed to meet individual needs. The "one-stop" services currently being established in a number of jurisdictions need to be studied from the consumer perspective. The results from consumer experience will be a persuasive tool for changing the delivery system.

Educate the consumer

Consumers need information and education about career-development services. They need to know that, as change becomes the norm, most people will need some level of help with career planning throughout their work lives. They also need to know that seeking assistance is smart career self-management and that a great deal of help can be available. Toll-free numbers, community television, self-directed learning packages, libraries, data banks, and Internet tools need to be more visible and accessible. A "career-educated" public will make the delivery system work more efficiently as they become more able to match their own needs with appropriate types and levels of service.

Share information

Knowing who does what was recognized as the basis for coherence in the delivery system and as fundamental to reducing overlap. It is important to move away from multiple organizations that compete for resources, toward a continuum of services.

New roles for key players

Several key groups were identified as critical players in building a better delivery system:

Education Career education needs to be experienced by every student. In addition, a broader range of careers need to be promoted. The tendency to promote the professions produces a restrictive set of options for the 60% of students who do not pursue postsecondary training.

Community Community organizations need to collaborate with service providers and consumers to develop an effective delivery system. This may have an agreed-upon starting point for consumers, followed by a range of services, and may require some agencies to give up certain services and assume others.

Workplaces The roles and responsibilities of employers and unions for the career development of workers must be more clearly defined, focusing on both their own internal workforce, and also on services for outplacement or downsizing. Many employers and unions have exceptional programs for their own workers, which have enormous potential for reaching the growing displaced worker population.

Governments As governments move out of direct delivery of career-development services, policies and operating principles need to be established to guide external agencies delivering these services. Governments need to strengthen the capacity of external agencies to provide service, by ensuring they have access to labour-market information, training, and professional and technical support. Further, the funding of external agencies needs to be on built on collaborative models, rather than competition for a common pool of resources.

Standards and Training

There is an urgent need for core competencies that establish the minimum knowledge and skill levels needed for a career practitioner. A national collaborative effort is needed, to capitalize on what has already been developed and thus provide grounds for provincial endorsement and for guaranteeing a basic standard. These would provide much-needed consumer protection.

The training system must be practitioner-driven and inclusive, recognizing a wide range of educational backgrounds and on-the-job experience. Building-blocks include prior learning assessment, flexible entry, and a variety of delivery methods, including non-institutional ("without walls"), community-college and university courses, and professional-development offerings recognized by professional organizations.

Over time, the training system could begin offering several recognized levels of credentials. This would regulate the profession, recognize the qualified practitioner, and assure the consumer of quality.

Demonstrating value and professional/technical support

It is important to have evidence of the value of career-development services in order for them to be reasonably resourced, especially when there is competition for scarce funds. While a good deal of evaluation is being conducted, federal departments and provincial governments often use different evaluation methodologies to measure the same outcomes. There is a need for consensus on what outcomes can be expected of career services and on the instruments and/or methods used to measure those outcomes.

Initiating a national strategy

Participants agreed unanimously that the forums provided impetus for an important action agenda to make quality career-development services more accessible. They were interested in sharing best practices, information, and experiments in delivery. This confirmed the potential for a national career-development strategy, which would contain the following initial steps.

Establish a leadership council

Partners would be drawn from federal and provincial governments, ministries of education, professional associations, community-based agencies, economic recovery commissions, business, labour, and consumers. The Leadership Council would exist for a period not longer than three years and focus on accomplishing the tasks outlined in the leadership section above.

Take collective action

It is important to secure agreement among critical players to take actions, with defined milestones, that are essential to a successful national strategy. The specific actions would be those outlined in the above section on delivery systems.

Create a mechanism for national coordination

To ensure partners across all sectors are able to access professional and technical support, remain current, and sustain a strong career-development network, it would be efficient to create an operational mechanism for national coordination, professional and technical support, and sharing best resources and practices. This would be a means for acting on the suggestions in the above sections on training and standards, and evaluation.

One practical example

These early steps toward a national strategy will help to make quality career-development services more accessible for Canadians. The strategy will put into practice the commitment to sharing excellence and promoting lifelong learning in practical ways that support personal, economic, and social goals. One example of how many of the recommendations might be put into practice is illustrated by the Alberta Career Development Action Group.

The Alberta Career Development Action Group began with an exploratory meeting of people who had been active in developing resources, offering training, or coordinating the practice of career development in Alberta. The purpose of the meeting was to provide an opportunity for people to share what they were doing in career development, identify needs, and explore the potential for collaboration. At the close of the meeting, consensus developed that the day had been productive, that there was much room for collaboration, and that more could be accomplished by working collectively on common goals than any group could accomplish individually. There was agreement that no one needed an extra meeting to go to, but if the focus could be on action that advanced career development in the province, then people would be willing to contribute time and resources. To convey this focus, those present agreed on the name "Alberta Career Development Action Group."

Representation

Currently, the Action Group has representation from four sectors.

Government
Alberta Advanced Education and Career Development, Alberta Family and Social Services, Alberta Education, and Human Resources Development Canada

Postsecondary
University of Alberta (Continuing Professional Development),

University of Calgary (Faculty of Continuing Education), Athabasca University, Grant McEwan Community College

Service providers

Alberta Association of Community-Based Trainers, Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation, Life-Role Development Group

Practitioners

Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association, Alberta Teachers Association Guidance Council, Alberta Society for the Promotion and Advancement of Career Education (SPACE), Edmonton Career Practitioners Network

Accomplishments[3]

Early in 1995, members of the Action Group began to establish a sense of direction and set priorities. There was general agreement that any Alberta initiatives should be part of, or help to foster, what was happening nationally and in other parts of the world. There was commitment to working on a consensus model and to making sure the group was inclusive, rather than exclusive, so that all appropriate stakeholders could have input to what was happening. Working groups were established to examine three key areas:

- alternatives for creating a professional designation for career-development practitioners
- competencies pertaining to career development
- terms of reference and scope of participation in the Action Group

Three other opportunities for collaborative leadership emerged:

- The Alberta coordinator for the Canadian Career Information Partnerships invited the Action Group to assume the role of coordinating the career tabloid in Alberta. A successful tabloid, *Career Prospects,* was produced in November, and through several partners in the Action Group it was widely distributed across the province.
- Building Tomorrow Today, the First Alberta Regional Consultation for Career Development, was held in May 1995. The Consultation was made possible through the collective efforts of the Action Group members, some contributing financial support, and others contributing support in kind. This training event reached 400 practitioners, bringing them information about state-of-the-art programs and resources.
- The Alberta CanWorkNet Forum was held in October 1995. CanWorkNet is a national initiative to coordinate and increase access of career-development information on the Internet. Through the coordination of partners in the Action Group, over 200 people at 12 sites in eight different cities or towns in Alberta participated in the Alberta CanWorkNet Forum.

On the horizon

Partners in the Alberta Career Development Action Group are dedicated to implementing strategies that will improve and support the practice of career development in Alberta. Work is underway on the 1996 *Career Prospects* tabloid. Building Tomorrow Today: The Second Alberta Regional Consultation on Career Development is planned for 25–27 April 1996. A competency document has been created, and a process is being developed to validate the competencies across a wide cross-section of career development practitioners. Work has begun to create a professional designation for career-development practitioner in Alberta. A university-credit certificate in career development is being created. The focus in all these endeavours is to build on what has already been done, maintain an open and inviting process that includes the widest possible array of practitioners, and work together in true collaboration in which all partners are pulling together towards common goals.

Factors contributing to success

The Alberta Career Development Action Group has been successful in coordinating a move towards increased professionalism in career development in the province and facilitating the pooling of resources and a spirit of pulling together, in spite of initial scepticism from some members about the prognosis for trying to work together. An informal poll of members at a recent meeting indicated that there were many reasons for this success.

True collaboration

The Action Group works on a consensus model in which all members have equal voice. No organization is asked to "play someone else's game," and the direction and action outcomes are determined by the group. This sometimes makes predicting the direction quite uncertain; however, the by-product is that decisions are reached that all players can live with.

Shared accolades

In the consensus approach, all organizations have a chance to contribute, and all organizations get credit for success. The Action Group has a chair, who is merely a spokesperson for the group and takes no action that is not the result of a group decision.

Action is happening

Probably the largest single factor contributing to the success of the Action Group is that fact that concrete outcomes are being achieved. Furthermore, as the work of the Action Group progresses, potential areas for further action become more clear, creating a sense of synergy and momentum for change.

Membership is inclusive (not exclusive)

After the initial meeting, there was a deliberate move to widen the cross-section of members of the Action Group. Furthermore, membership in the group is open to new organizations. However, participation comes with one important condition: there are no onlookers (visitors)—everyone must be an active, participating member. This has created an atmosphere of mutual trust in which everyone has a chance to contribute, and everyone delivers on any promises made.

Conclusion

In the past, people usually needed assistance with their careers only at decision points, such as leaving school, graduating from postsecondary institutions, or changing jobs. Now career change is constant, and the demands for services have changed. In today's labour market, career planning is necessary for all Canadians throughout their life span. To address this need, a wide array of high-quality resources and programs has been developed in many parts of the country. However, Canadians need to be educated about the resources and services available to them, and the use of those resources needs to be normalized. Practitioners need to be made more aware of the tools and resources available to them, and they need to give a higher priority to professional development and training.

This paper has outlined some of the issues and courses of action identified during a series of leadership forums held in 1995. As such it is a call to action. It can be a starting point for building further consensus and adding other dimensions to the strategy. Many organizations are well positioned to moving a national strategy forward. The Canadian Labour Force Development Board plans to continue to be a catalyst for promoting action strategies that strengthen the role of career development as a critical contributor to a highly skilled Canadian labour force. Through continuing collaboration, we hope that a national impetus for career development will continue to grow and provide the leadership necessary to advance the practice of career development in Canada.

Endnotes

1 This paper draws heavily from *Career Development: An Emerging National Strategy*, published by the Canadian Labour Force Development Board (CLFDB) in January 1996. The opinions reflected in this paper are those of the authors and the participants in the forums, and are not necessarily those of the CLFDB. Copies of the full report are available from Canadian Labour Force Development Board, 23–66 Slater Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H1. Telephone (613) 230-6264. Facsimile (613) 230-7681.

[2] The authors gratefully acknowledge the following people who contributed to the "Leadership in Career Development" forums: Bonnie Shiell, Valerie Ward, Patrick Murray, Bonnie Grandy, Tom MacDonald, Patrick Flanagan, and Janis Stone. The opinions reflected in this paper are those of the authors and the participants in the forums and are not necessarily those of the Canadian Labour Force Development Board. The financial support of the CLFDB in conducting the forums and preparing this paper is gratefully acknowledged.

[3] Copies of the Terms of Reference of the Alberta Career Development Action Group, as well as the other working papers described in this section, are available from Dr. Bryan Hiebert, Alberta Career Development Action Group, 4840 Verona Drive N.W., Calgary, Alberta T3A 0P4. Telephone (403) 247-2179. Facsimile (403) 288-0028.

Les c.o. de demain, des CD-ROM?

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Introduction

Nous avons utilisé l'expression CD-ROM non pas afin de présenter les plus récents systèmes informatiques dans le domaine de l'orientation, mais plutôt en vue de relater une expérience menée au sein d'une organisation qui attribue un nouveau rôle au conseiller d'orientation, soit celui de consultant en développement des ressources organisationnelles et de la main-d'oeuvre (CD-ROM). Après avoir expliqué les bases de notre conception du développement de carrière, nous examinerons ce phénomène du point de vue des individus et des organisations. Nous expliquerons ensuite l'instrument de mesure retenu afin d'identifier les besoins d'un groupe d'employés en matière de développement de carrière et nous analyserons les résultats obtenus en tenant compte de leur motivation au travail. Finalement, nous dégagerons les principales retombées de notre expérience.

Le développement de carrière

Les fondements de notre étude proviennent essentiellement de la théorie élaborée par Super (1957, 1963, 1985, 1992, 1994). Cet auteur considère le développement de carrière comme un processus qui s'étend sur toute la vie d'une personne. Afin de faciliter la compréhension de sa conception théorique, il a introduit en 1985 un modèle qui prend la forme d'un arc-en-ciel. Sur ce schéma, il y a d'abord deux grandes catégories de déterminants du développement de carrière, c'est-à-dire les variables externes (famille, situation économique, etc.) et les variables internes (intérêts, aptitudes, valeurs, etc.). Viennent ensuite les arcs qui contiennent les cinq stades de la vie établis par ce théoricien (croissance, exploration, établissement, maintien, désengagement) ainsi que les âges approximatifs et les principaux rôles qu'une personne est amenée à exercer au cours de ce processus (enfant, étudiant, loisiriste, citoyen, travailleur, époux, personne au foyer, parent et retraité). D'autres informations figurent sur ce graphique, notamment que les rôles ne débutent pas et ne se terminent pas en même temps (amplitude des arcs) et que certains d'entre eux (étudiant, travailleur) sont caractérisés par des moments d'arrêt tels que la fin des études ou les périodes de chômage. Super (1985, 1992, 1994) apporte des précisions supplémentaires concernant le degré d'implication variable des individus dans chacun de ces rôles (intensité des couleurs), leur nature asexuée, les principaux endroits (théâtres) où ils peuvent être joués (maison, école, communauté, monde du travail) ainsi que sur la notion de conflit de rôles (problème qui surgit quand plusieurs rôles sont exercés simultanément dans divers lieux au cours d'un même stade).

Donc, d'après ce théoricien, le développement de carrière ne peut être isolé du développement global de la personne, car il conçoit l'identité professionnelle comme une transposition de l'identité personnelle. Aussi, il ne s'agit pas d'un processus rigide ou d'une progression linéaire puisqu'à certains moments de sa vie, une personne peut se retrouver dans divers stades ou exécuter des tâches particulières à d'autres stades (recyclage). De même, il considère comme normales les multiples périodes de questionnements et de réorganisations que doit affronter l'individu au cours de son interaction avec l'environnement . C'est ce qu'il appelle l'adaptabilité à la carrière (Super 1983, 1988), notion pouvant être estimée à l'aide des préoccupations que l'adulte démontre à l'égard des tâches correspondant aux stades de développement de carrière.

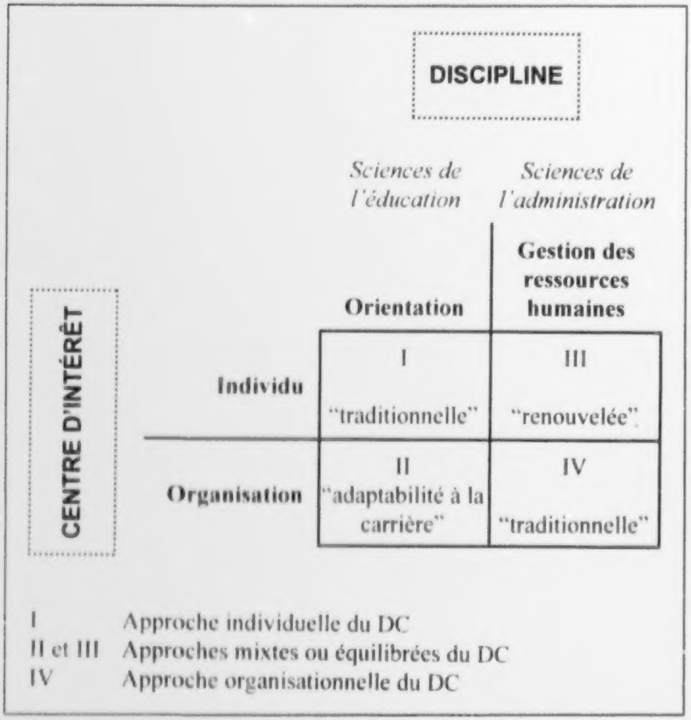
Ainsi, outre le stade de croissance qui est davantage lié à l'enfance, il y a le stade d'exploration où l'individu fait principalement des activités dans le but d'acquérir des informations sur lui-même et sur l'environnement. Les tâches s'y rapportant sont celles de la cristallisation, de la spécification et de la réalisation d'une préférence professionnelle. Au stade d'établissement, l'individu, qui a habituellement trouvé un secteur d'activités qui lui convient, s'emploie surtout à y faire sa place. Les tâches relatives à ce stade sont la stabilisation, la consolidation et l'avancement. Lors du stade de maintien, l'adulte se préoccupe surtout de maintenir sa position actuelle sinon de l'améliorer. Les tâches à réaliser sont les suivantes: garder sa position, mettre à jour et innover. Quant au stade de déclin, il marque généralement le début du travail à mi-temps ou l'arrivée de la retraite, car, à ce moment, l'adulte se désengage peu à peu du marché du travail. Les tâches de ce stade s'établissent comme suit : ralentissement, planification de la retraite, vie de retraité(e).

Par conséquent, chacun des stades de la vie adulte élaboré par Super comporte trois tâches développementales qu'il définit comme des attentes ou demandes qu'une personne doit affronter pour se développer au point de vue de sa carrière. Cette dernière étant considérée comme la totalité ou la séquence des rôles et des expériences de travail rémunérées ou non rémunérées qu'une personne exerce au cours de sa vie. Généralement, la réalisation de ces tâches qui proviennent de la personne elle-même ou de la société passe nécessairement par la démonstration de certaines attitudes ou comportements que Super (1988) a repris dans les énoncés d'un questionnaire. Nous le décrirons après avoir expliqué notre conception du développement de carrière de l'individu dans l'organisation.

Le développement de carrière de l'individu dans l'organisation

Le développement de carrière au sein de l'organisation tel que nous le concevons (Amherdt 1995, 1996) constitue une composante de la gestion des ressources humaines au même titre que d'autres éléments comme la sélection, la formation ou l'évaluation. Dans un nouveau modèle de gestion (Guérin et Wils 1992a, 1993), caractérisé par le souci de pratiquer une gestion plus individualisée des ressources humaines, nous sommes d'avis que ce processus doit occuper une place centrale. Quant au concept de carrière définit auparavant, il convient aussi de rappeler qu'il n'est pas l'apanage d'une seule discipline, mais qu'il se rapporte à des disciplines aussi diverses que l'économie, la sociologie, la psychologie, la science politique, la géographie ou l'histoire (Lawrence et autres 1989). C'est pourquoi les moyens utilisés en vue de comprendre le développement de carrière devraient être issus d'une conception transdisciplinaire voire multidisciplinaire rejoignant ainsi la position prise par Schein (1986). Selon cette perspective, nous privilégions les sciences de l'éducation et de l'administration comme le montre la figure 1.

Figure 1 Quatre approches du développement de carrière (DC) issues des sciences de l'éducation et de l'administration



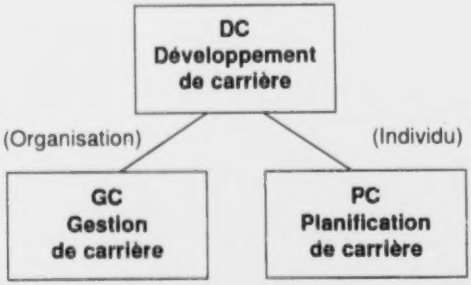
	Sciences de l'éducation	*Sciences de l'administration*
	Orientation	**Gestion des ressources humaines**
Individu	I “traditionnelle”	III “renouvelée”
Organisation	II “adaptabilité à la carrière”	IV “traditionnelle”

I	Approche individuelle du DC
II et III	Approches mixtes ou équilibrées du DC
IV	Approche organisationnelle du DC

Les approches I et IV ont dominé pendant les années de croissance de l'emploi (1945-1975). Toutefois, elles s'avèrent fort éloignées sinon antinomiques. Dans la première (I), on cherche à répondre aux besoins de l'individu tandis que dans la quatrième (IV) on s'intéresse essentiellement à ceux de l'organisation. Les deux autres approches (II et III) sont plus contemporaines et davantage équilibrées quant aux besoins respectifs des individus et des organisations. La troisième (III) est inspirée des nouvelles approches en gestion des ressources humaines (Guérin et Wils 1992a, 1993). À ce niveau, tout en conservant la primauté de l'organisation quant aux besoins auxquels il convient de répondre, on se préoccupe davantage des individus et de ce qu'ils vivent, compte tenu de l'effet produit sur l'avenir de l'organisation. Inversement, dans la deuxième approche (II), tout en attribuant aux individus un rôle prédominant, on reconnaît à l'organisation une importance plus grande que par le passé. C'est ici que la notion d'«adaptabilité à la carrière» prend tout son sens, car elle se traduit par une adaptation continuelle de l'individu à son environnement (incluant son environnement de travail) au cours de sa carrière.

Notre conception du développement de carrière de l'individu dans l'organisation s'inspire largement des travaux de Hall et autres (1986) (voir figure 2). En ce sens, le développement de carrière est le résultat qui émane de l'interaction de la planification de carrière qui vise à répondre aux besoins des individus avec la gestion de carrière qui cherche plutôt à répondre aux besoins des organisations. Bien que cette conception dite équilibrée du développement de carrière existe depuis quelques années, elle ne semble pas encore très répandue. En effet, dans la grande majorité des organisations, on retrouve davantage de pratiques qui vont servir la gestion de carrière (Guérin et Wils 1992b) au détriment de la planification de carrière, ce qui ne tient pas compte de ces deux conceptions de façon conjointe et équilibrée (Guérin et Wils 1992c). Toutefois, les limites de cette démarche sont rapidement atteintes lorsqu'on est confronté à des restructurations majeures au sein des organisations et à l'effet qu'elles peuvent avoir sur les individus.

Figure 2



Concrètement, la promotion du développement de carrière dans l'organisation peut se manifester par l'implantation d'un programme de développement de carrière qui comprend habituellement six étapes (Amherdt 1996) :

1 l'identification d'un problème dans l'organisation pour lequel la solution en termes de développement de carrière s'avère pertinente;
2 l'identification des besoins organisationnels en développement de carrière;
3 l'identification des besoins individuels en développement de carrière;
4 la rencontre des besoins individuels et organisationnels en développement de carrière, qui aboutit au projet;
5 le soutien à la concrétisation du projet dans le plan d'action;
6 l'évaluation de l'ensemble du programme.

Parmi toutes ces étapes, la troisième nous apparaît particulièrement cruciale, mais les moyens disponibles pour la franchir sont souvent insuffisants. Dans le but de remédier à cette situation, nous avons cherché à identifier les besoins d'un groupe d'employés d'une grande organisation en matière de développement de carrière. Pour ce faire, nous avons utilisé, entre autres, divers instruments dont l'Inventaire des préoccupations de carrière, qui permet de vérifier jusqu'à quel point des tâches relatives au développement de carrière préoccupent actuellement la personne adulte. Au préalable, ce questionnaire existait uniquement en version anglaise sous le titre d'*Adult Career Concerns Inventory* (Super 1988). Cette version a été traduite et adaptée auprès d'une clientèle francophone dans le cadre d'une autre étude (Gingras, Tétreau et Dupont 1994) et ses qualités psychométriques se sont avérées des plus satisfaisantes. L'Inventaire s'adresse à des sujets de 15 ans et plus qui ont terminé minimalement une huitième année d'études. Le temps d'administration requis varie entre 15 et 30 minutes et le mode de correction manuelle donne lieu à un profil établie en scores moyens ou en percentiles. Pour chacune des 12 tâches de développement de carrière spécifiées, il y a 5 énoncés qui décrivent des attitudes et des comportements. Les sujets sont invités à répondre à ces 60 énoncés en indiquant leur degré d'accord à l'aide d'une échelle de type Likert calibrée de la façon suivante : (1) pas du tout; (2) un peu; (3) moyennement; (4) fortement; (5) très fortement.

L'analyse des résultats obtenus

Les résultats globaux présentés au tableau 1 s'inscrivent dans le cadre d'une recherche exploratoire concernant l'implantation d'un programme pilote en développement de carrière auprès de 58 adultes à l'emploi d'une grande organisation. Après nous être assurés de la valeur de l'Inventaire des préoccupations de carrière avec ce type de clientèle (Amherdt, Gingras et Tétreau 1995), nous avons vérifié s'il entretenait des relations significatives avec d'autres mesures comme la motivation au travail. En général, nous remarquons d'abord que les sujets préoccupés par les tâches du stade d'exploration semblent surtout motivés par des variables externes comme le salaire et la sécurité d'emploi. Même s'ils recherchent d'autres possibilités occupationnelles, ils demeurent sensibles aux avantages matériels dont ils bénéficient actuellement. Pour leur part, les personnes qui démontrent surtout des attitudes et des comportements liés au stade d'établissement ont tendance à être motivées non seulement par des variables externes, mais également par des variables internes comme le fait d'avoir du plaisir dans leur travail ou d'apprendre de nouvelles choses. Possiblement que la plupart d'entre elles sont dans un secteur d'activités professionnelles qui leur convient et où elles veulent faire leur place. Les données observées au stade de maintien vont généralement dans le même sens, quoique les sources de motivation intrinsèque semblent plus nombreuses chez ces adultes. C'est probablement parce qu'ils désirent préserver leurs acquis, voire innover dans le cadre de leur travail, qu'ils paraissent si motivés. Quant aux résultats associés au stade de désengagement, ils révèlent que ces personnes sont démotivées; seules les considérations externes peuvent encore les stimuler. Cette situation s'explique peut-être par le fait qu'ils n'ont plus d'attentes particulières à l'égard du travail. Bien que sommaires, ces résultats révèlent l'existence de certaines relations entre les préoccupations de carrière et la motivation au travail.

Tableau 1

Préoccupations de carrière	**Motivation au travail**		
	Amotivation	**Motivation extrinsèque**	**Motivation intrinsèque**
Exploration	.19	.24 *	.02
Cristallisation	.16	.26 *	.02
Spécification	.18	.24 *	.02
Réalisation	.16	.16	.00
Établissement	.15	.30 *	.29 *
Stabilisation	.19	.15	.12
Consolidation	.11	.40 **	.40 **
Avancement	.05	.22 *	.25 *
Maintien	.02	.31 **	.41 **
Garder sa position	.19	.27 *	.33 **
Mise à jour	.09	.30 *	.34 **
Innovation	-.28 *	.22 *	.37 **
Désengagement	.36 **	.24 *	.13
Ralentissement	.25 *	.17	- .00
Planification de la retraite	.30 *	.22 *	.18
Vie de retraité(e)	.38 **	.19	.12

* $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$

Les principales implications

Cette recherche exploratoire a donné des résultats tels que l'on peut affirmer qu'un programme en développement de carrière, même partiel comme cela a été le cas dans notre expérience, mérite d'être implanté si l'on sauvegarde la troisième étape, à savoir celle de l'identification des besoins individuels en termes de développement de carrière. La raison principale est que les individus qui travaillent dans le contexte de restructuration des organisations de ces dernières années sont plus susceptibles d'être démunis quant à leur développement de carrière et qu'il est souhaitable de leur apporter toute l'aide nécessaire.

Il existe également d'autres possibilités d'utilisation de l'Inventaire applicables à divers milieux et à différentes personnes. Ainsi, en plus de tracer leur profil individuel, les réponses obtenues à ce questionnaire peuvent aider les professionnels de l'orientation à choisir ou à élaborer des stratégies d'intervention mieux adaptées, à évaluer l'efficacité de leurs pratiques auprès des adultes et, pourquoi pas, à les éduquer en vue de leur carrière afin de favoriser leur épanouissement personnel, ce qui sera susceptible de contribuer à leur mieux-être et à celui de l'organisation ou du milieu dans lequel ils évoluent. Voilà un formidable défi pour ces spécialistes au cours des prochaines années.

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Lifelong learning in a new world of work

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Current trends in the workplace

Lifelong learning

Today's workplace is undergoing drastic change. Re-engineering, reorganization, downsizing, right-sizing—whatever the business terms we use, we are finding ourselves in a new world of work. Our workplace is fast-changing, knowledge-based, and driven by technology. Relying on employers for job security is becoming less valid. Rather, one's own knowledge and skills are becoming recognized as providing the real job security. As Benjamin Franklin once said, " If an individual empties his purse into his head, no one can take it from him."

Currently, learning is receiving unprecedented emphasis in the workplace. A recent survey on employer needs, "What do employers want?" done by Mossop Cornelissen & Associates, indicates that "willingness to learn" was ranked as the second-highest personal attribute, after "dependability," that employers look for when making hiring decisions. (Mossop Cornelissen & Associates 1995) Organizations are increasingly taking steps to ensure that their employees possess learning capabilities and initiative. The concept of the "learning organization" has been discussed for some time. Recently, the *Globe & Mail* published a full-page article on the "learning organization," which featured the Bank of Montreal's endeavours as an example in this area. (Alaton 1995) This stress on learning in the workplace appears to have a distinctive feature: a new approach to learning that is characterized by individualized and continuous learning rather than conventional "mass training" for transferring pre-defined skills and knowledge through seminars and courses. The new approach to learning comprises long-range, career-oriented learning activities that are tailored to each individual.

Lifelong learning from the perspective of learners

Traditionally, we tend to divide our lives into certain stages: we think of our childhood and young adulthood as the period for learning. During that time, we attend school and we study various subjects. Once we graduate, we think that our studies are over and we no longer need to learn. Nobody tells us that we should continue to learn after leaving school. This conventional attitude is beginning to give way to the idea of continuing education. Yet, this traditional attitude is still dominant in our school system. Generally speaking, the school system teaches subjects such as math, science, and English. What it does not teach is why, what, and how to learn after we finish school and as we go through adulthood.

Lately, a lot has been written about lifelong learning as well as about the "learning organization" (Canadian Association for Adult Education 1995; Joyner and Price 1995; Pucki, Tichy, and Barnett 1993; Senge 1990). However, it appears that the issue has not really been viewed from the perspective of the individual learner. There are at least three lifelong learning issues that are crucial for adult learners to resolve. Facilitating learners in these three learning areas is a challenge for those in the field of human resources and career development:

1 Identification of learning style and attribute

At school, students are bunched together in a classroom and expected to learn in the same way. In reality, each student is different and learns differently. In particular, by the time adulthood has been reached, each one has gained quite a different life experience, including learning experience. It is important for individuals to understand how they learn, what their learning style is, and how to apply that understanding effectively to learning activities.

2 How to learn continuously

At school, it seems that students are taught only how to run 100 metres. They are not taught how to run a marathon. Running a marathon is very different from running 100 metres. Lifelong learning is like a marathon, a long process that requires planning, stamina, self-discipline, and persistence. The key to successful continuous learning is mastering the "learn—unlearn—re-learn" process. Learning occurs first. Individuals must then unlearn what they have learned, that is, to unlearn the first set of patterns when any new learning becomes warranted, such as when circumstances change. Then, individuals move on to re-learn a new pattern by exploring new ways.

3 How to take initiative in learning

At school, students are given a set menu, a curriculum. They choose what they need and/or want to learn from that set menu. The learning initiative in the workplace is a different ball game; there, nobody provides a set menu. Individuals are expected to fathom how to take the initiative in learning, what kind of initiative to take, when to take it, and where.

Issues surrounding the lifelong learning infrastructure

The three lifelong learning issues discussed above from the perspective of the individual learner must be placed within the context of lifelong learning infrastructures. Bob Rosehart succinctly described the institutions of our education and training systems as an "archipelago with lousy ferry service," when looked at from the perspective of the individual learner. (Ontario, Premier's Council On Economic Renewal

1994) The current infrastructures are inadequate in meeting the needs of lifelong learners. A flexible, inclusive infrastructure is required for learners to manage their own education and training. As mentioned earlier, lifelong learning focuses increasingly on an individually tailored and self-directed approach.

Recent funding cutbacks are posing a great challenge to modifying the existing infrastructures. At the same time, it is imperative to find ways to secure and enhance the accessibility, availability, and quality of learning opportunities and resources for lifelong learning in the midst of constraints.

Mini-survey on trends in lifelong learning observed during a hiring process

Background: Organizational emphasis on learning

Marubeni Canada Ltd. is in the business of international trade: importing and exporting. International trade is characterized by fast-changing and complex business activities. The globalization of the world economy in recent years has intensified the speed and complexity of these activities. International trade business must cope with time, language, and cultural differences on a day-to-day basis. The company's diverse business activities span over more than 200 offices in over 80 countries. Our Canadian operation, which comprises Japanese management within the North American context, has been in the process of reorganization and localization in order to keep up with the pace of change. This new initiative requires a new vision and a new generation of internationally oriented staff. These needs have, in turn, prompted our organization to specifically examine the learning initiative and learning capabilities of both existing and potential staff. Some experimental initiatives have been introduced. This brief survey provides a glimpse of one of those endeavours—the steps taken to determine whether and to what extent job applicants have learning initiative and capabilities.

Purpose and scope of survey

The purpose of the survey was to examine learning issues with regard to job applicants at the time of our company's hiring process. The survey was conducted from the hiring side. It is also expected to provide some insights into broad learning issues in today's fast-changing workplace.

The scope of the survey covered one specific hiring of administrative/ clerical staff through an advertisement that our company placed last year. The sample size was 100. The survey was not intended to be a scientifically correct statistical survey, but rather just an exploratory survey to find out some trends and tendencies in the field.

The survey looked into three areas of learning issues during the hiring process:

1. learning attributes or styles of the candidates
2. continuous self-development learning activities—track record
3. learning initiative of the candidates *during* their job application process

The method used was to review all job applications (résumés and cover letters) and observe direct interactions with candidates at the time of interviews.

Summary of the findings

The overall findings of the mini-survey indicate that very few job applicants are clearly and sufficiently communicating their learning issues during their job-application process.

1 Learning-related attribute or style

Only a limited number of job applicants—about 20%—mentioned their learning-related attribute or style. Speed was the most frequently cited learning-related attribute, followed by willingness and eagerness to learn.

2 Continuous learning activities—track record

Most job applicants put their "education" in their résumé in one way or another. Few résumés, however, provided comprehensive information on their continuous learning activities in their résumés. "Continuous learning" for the purpose of the survey was defined as learning activities over and above their formal schooling that job applicants completed up to the point of young adulthood. In many cases, description and presentation with regard to continuous learning were incomplete, even if some information on learning activities was given. One or more of the following items of information were often missing: subject, time frame, institution, certificate or other recognition, sponsorship (if any).

3 Learning initiative in action

Overall, very weak learning initiative in action was observed; even though the nature of our business was clearly spelled out in the advertisement, the majority of job applicants submitted just their form cover letter and mass-mailing type of résumé. It appears that they did not take the time and effort to research the company or industry and then adapt their application accordingly. The subsequent interviews confirmed their weak learning initiative in action as well; only one or two applicants in ten took the time and effort to find out about the industry and/or the company, although the nature of our business was repeated over the phone when they were invited for an interview.

Practical suggestions for job applicants

1 Do your homework: try to find out as much as possible about the company and industry concerned, and try to communicate your knowledge to prospective employers.

2 Keep learning in order to upgrade knowledge and skills within an overall career direction and objective. Prepare a concise but comprehensive list of learning activities as your track record, and include that information in your résumé.

3 Be consistent in the following aspects of learning, and communicate them effectively to prospective employers:
   - learning-related attribute or style
   - track record of continuous learning activities
   - demonstration of initiative in learning during the application and interview process.

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Men and work

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Men and Work

The suicide rate for unemployed men in North America is double those with jobs. For women the suicide rates do not vary with their employment status. This alarming statistic alone should clue us in to a major problem that has so far received scant attention. The lack of books and resources to help men in their growth has been painfully obvious for some time now. Gail Sheehy, in her popular new book *New Passages*, writes on how well women are coping with and adjusting to change in midlife and beyond. However, she notes men are having a difficult time adjusting to change because so much of their identity is tied to their work. In *Revolution From Within*, Gloria Steinem notes that while there are many books available for women to help them grow, there are few for men. Many of these books on women focus upon the woman who is trying to play the double work and home role, yet there are few books available for men whose work is very destructive to them because they have no identity outside of it.

Even though men's work is infrequently the realization of their dreams, there are strong societal expectations that keep them shackled to their work. A 64-year-old recognizing the truth of his situation explained his predicament in the following way: "I'm terrified of retirement. The problem is simple. If I'm not working, who am I? It'll be as if I've ceased to exist." A 49-year-old businessman summed up his situation like this: "If I don't succeed now, I'll be a nobody when I'm dead." A middle-management executive shared the following feelings: "Relax? How can I? There's always some other guy jockeying for my place. If I lose my spot, I'm a nobody. You can't be a man and go backwards. Or even sideways. It's always up, up, up. Otherwise how can you live with yourself?"

Although many women now work outside of the home and live under the same strains and stresses in the workplace, there is one vital difference between the sexes when it comes to the meaning that they place on work. Women normally receive a great deal of their identity from their children, families, and relationships with others and are seldom dependant for their entire identity upon their work. For many men, however, their entire identity and sense of self-worth is tied to their work. This leaves them in a very vulnerable position when they lose their work. Even though for many men their work may be a burden and give them little fulfilment, losing that work puts them into a crisis. The results of the effects of unemployment on males has been studied and documented. In Newfoundland, the Canadian Mental Health Association did a study of the effects of unemployment since the virtual shutdown of the fishing industry there. They found that where unemployment rates have skyrocketed, so have the rates of unhappiness, alcohol abuse, and family violence. This has, of course, coincided with men being at home instead of out fishing. A much larger study was conducted by the Johns Hopkins School of Public Health and presented to the U.S. Congressional Joint Economic Committee. Some of the highlights of the report are as follows:

- The suicide rate for prime-age males is directly related to the unemployment rate.
- Increases in the death rate of one group of prime-age males (45–64) from stroke and heart disease peaks at just over a year after the unemployment rate peaks.
- Mental health and prison admissions increase when the unemployment rate increases.
- Job loss is closely tied to depression, anxiety, aggression, insomnia, loss of self-esteem, and marital problems. Partners of unemployed workers showed mental-health symptoms later than their unemployed spouses who also had mental-health problems.

While all men who find themselves involuntary unemployed are vulnerable, blue-collar workers are perhaps the most vulnerable. Generally more traditional in their adherence to gender roles than their professional counterparts, they are less likely to be aware of the few services available and less likely to seek help. Often the skills they have learned were learned on the job and are not easily transferrable to other areas. Our society's present changeover from an industrial age to a information age has left thousands of blue-collar workers expendable and destined to the scrap heap of history.

During the '70s there was a lot of talk of gender roles in society. Most of the discussion was about women's gender roles and how those roles limited women's ability to enter into different careers. In 1975, Samuel Osipow published a text devoted specifically to women's career development. Very little attention has been paid to the specific needs of men in the career decision-making process. Men's roles have been largely neglected in the research. The following are suggestions for career-development practitioners working with men:

- Have a solid background in adult development theory.
- Be aware of your own gender-role attitudes and biases.
- Have knowledge of,—and be able to articulate—issues and themes in men's lives.
- Be aware of power and control issues that may arise when dealing with men, and have a plan for dealing with these issues.
- Be able to describe the outcomes and results of certain male gender-role issues. Many men will be unaware of their feelings and emotions surrounding these issues, and will need help to enable them to clarify and delve deeper into these areas. The counsellor could develop specific techniques to be able to assist in this process.
- Be able to help men in assessing the effects of parents, school, and societal expectations on their career choices.

- Research has shown that most men tend to be cognitive rather than insightful. For them, the perceived value of the counselling will be increased if decision making is part of the process. Counsellors should be aware of this, and bring decision making into the counselling session.
- Counsellors will need to use their creativity in helping males come up with and explore alternatives.

At present, the career counsellor's main job is to get the man back into the workforce. That role needs to expand to helping men cope with being unemployed. When men haved increased their ability to cope, they will be able to look for work from a position of strength, rather than from a sense of desperation. While for many men their work was not a fulfilment of their dreams, it nevertheless provided men with three essential things: structure, purpose, and community. Unless these can be compensated for while the man is unemployed, he will be in a very vulnerable place. The longer he is unemployed and the less of any of these three essentials he has outside the workplace, the greater his risk will be.

Structure

At first, the newfound freedom of not having a job may feel very good. There is time to relax, have a coffee, read the paper, and do at leisure all the things that the man previously had no time for. Soon, however, having all that spare time becomes a burden to the man whose worth has been programmed to be based on doing things. Signs that structure has broken down for a man appear, in the form of letting his appearance go, not shaving, not changing or washing his clothes, and sleeping in all hours of the day. Volunteer work, especially work that requires regular commitments at certain times, can help prevent loss of structure for a man. It can also help in giving him a sense of purpose and a connection to the community.

Purpose

It is crucial for a man to have a purpose in order to survive any lengthy period of unemployment. Studies have shown that seven out of ten people who retire without a purpose in life die within two years after retirement. At the same time, we all know people who have the time of their life after retirement. Purpose in life is essential, whether the man is employed or not. The following questions that a man may ask himself may be helpful in helping him define his purpose.

- A person with purpose I admire is…
- Looking back upon my life, I would like to have accomplished the following…
- I would get great satisfaction if I was able to…
- My life would be complete if I could accomplish the following…

While helping men define their higher life purpose, it is equally important to define small achievable day-to-day tasks to help them gain a sense of achievement and worth. Some ideas are:

- Shop for and prepare a nutritious meal.
- Do an errand for a neighbour who is ill or handicapped.
- Learn or gain knowledge in an area of interest to you.
- Set a goal to improve your physical health.
- Help out in a cause you have some personal attachment to.

Community

Many people, when asked if they miss their work, will tell you that they don't miss the work but the people that they worked with. Men especially, since they usually have developed smaller support networks, tend to have all their eggs in one basket. Once the job is gone, so is the support network. Men need to create their own community outside of work. Getting involved in community organizations, church, political organizations, and men's support groups are ways of creating a community. This also helps in forming networks that will help in the job search. Men should be strongly encouraged to maintain support networks after they have found work. This should be a lifetime goal and commitment. These are part of his real safety net, and could be a matter of life and death.

Harvey Deutschendorf is a career-development practitioner with a background in social work. He is heavily involved in men's issues and has written a book on the topic of men and work. The book, with the working title *Of Work and Men,* is scheduled to be released in the fall of 1996. The publisher is Fairview Press, 2450 Riverside Avenue, South Minneapolis, Minnesota 55454. Tel. (800) 544-8207. Fax: (612) 672-4980.

Minority and majority adolescents voice their needs

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Introduction

Academic and career and life-management issues have been noted in numerous studies of adolescent concerns. Borgen and Amundson (1995) point to the importance of preparing adolescents in advance to meet both personal and career-related needs for successful negotiation of the school-to-work transition and suggest that many currently lack the skills needed to face this challenge. In addition, many students never complete high school. Not only does the current 30% dropout rate threaten to overburden Canadian health and welfare services (Employment and Immigration Canada 1990), but there exists a moral imperative for schools to develop "whole" students who will ultimately become active and contributing members of society (Cameron, Mutter, and Hamilton 1991).

For ethnic minorities, academic performance and the development of career and life-management skills and directions may be complicated by language and cultural barriers (Dryfoos 1990). The increasing number of youth who are culturally and racially different from the majority population amplifies the necessity of specific attention to their needs. Of the over 250,000 immigrants to enter Canada in 1992, more than 17,000 were 15–19 years of age, and over 46,000 were between the ages of 0 and 14 years. Together, these two groups comprised more than one quarter of the total immigration for that year (Citizenship and Immigration Canada 1994).

Over the past several decades, a model of health assessment and intervention called Comprehensive School Health (CHS) has been developed, which allows for integration of career and life-management issues into a holistic and comprehensive initiative within school communities. Health is broadly defined to include physical, mental, spiritual, emotional, interpersonal, and environmental components and is addressed through a three-fold model of school-based services, curriculum and instruction, and healthy physical and social environments (Cameron et al. 1991). Central to this model is a student-centred, bottom-up process of needs assessment, which facilitates differentiation between various subgroups within the school population and provides the foundation for program development and implementation. Encouraging ethnic minority participation in this process can increase their investment in the initiative, as well as promote culturally sensitive program development and implementation.

This study was based on the needs-assessment results from three senior high schools in Calgary, Alberta. The specific goals of the present study were to identify whether the self-perceived health-related needs of ethnic minority adolescents were distinct from those of the larger student population and to explore possible differences within the ethnic population, based on length of residence in Canada and ethno-linguistic status.

Method

The sample consisted of 2370 students from three senior high schools. The distribution of students across school and majority/minority grouping is shown in table 1. For schools One and Two, these numbers represent approximately half of the student populations. For School 3, all students present on the day of administration participated in the survey. Demographic information on first language and length of residence in Canada was requested. The primary language groups were Arabic, Chinese, Punjabi, Spanish, and Vietnamese. Multivariate analyses revealed no significant differences across language or time in Canada, therefore the minority populations were treated as one homogeneous group. It is possible that with larger minority group sizes some differences would have been observed.

Table 1 Distribution of Majority and Minority Students by School

	School 1	School 2	School 3	Total
Minority				
Number	185	105	533	823
Percent	7.8%	4.4%	22.5%	34.7%
Majority				
Number	240	291	1016	1547
Percent	10.1%	12.3%	42.9%	65.3%
Total				
Number	425	396	1549	2370
Percent	17.9%	16.7%	65.4%	100.0%

A comprehensive needs-assessment instrument was developed using a modified Delphi process and school-based focus groups. The questionnaire included 15 distinct categories of adolescent health-related needs grouped into the three overarching components of the CSH model: health services (physical health, counselling, sexuality, family/home life); instruction (health promotion, physical health, mental/emotional health, sexuality, interpersonal relationships, school performance); and environment (school building/grounds, interaction with students, interaction with school personnel, safety/accident prevention, home atmosphere).

For the purposes of this study, the overall priorization of these categories of need will be highlighted, and then three areas will be explored in greater detail: counselling services, mental/emotional health instruction, and instruction related to school performance. Each category contained a series of items designed to clarify the nature of the general need, which students rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly

Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." The mean of all the items in a given area provided a summary score, which was then used to create an overall priorization of those areas.

Results

Multivariate analyses of variance were conducted using both summary scores of question blocks and individual (within question block) needs items. Main effects were observed for both school and majority/minority status. Descriptive and multivariate analyses highlight the differences between the expressed needs of minority and majority students in the three general areas of interest, with variations across school noted.

Relative importance of the various general needs areas

Based on the summary scores for the various general needs areas, an order of relative importance (rank) was developed. The highest ranked areas were similar across schools and across majority and minority groups: school building and grounds, safety and accident prevention, and school atmosphere related to student interactions. In addition, physical health instruction was a consistent priority.

Differences between minority and majority groups were noted, however, for the three areas of particular interest in this study: counselling services, mental health instruction, and school performance. The pattern that emerges is quite consistent across schools. Mental health instruction was ranked lower by minority students, with the exception of School 3. Minority students also rated counselling services as less important than majority students in all three schools. For those counsellors and teachers involved in career and life-management programming, this observation may be of particular importance. School performance instruction, on the other hand, was consistently seen as more important by minority students. The following section will highlight the individual items of priority to each group that form the basis for the observed differences at this level.

Analysis of individual items

For the purposes of descriptive analyses, only the individual items rated "Agree" to "Strongly Agree" within each general area of need will be highlighted. These individual items provide important information about the nature of the general need and the differences in relative importance across groups. Multivariate differences across minority/majority groups, school, and gender will also be noted.

Mental/emotional health instruction

In the area of mental/emotional health instruction, there was considerable agreement between minority and majority students across all three schools about specific needs items. (See table 2 on next page.) Most students identified instruction in problem-solving and decision-making skills, money management, time management, and stress management as important needs. Relative agreement also existed on the need for skills in coping with the future and anger management, although they typically fell lower on the list. Also included were the need for more self-awareness in terms of feelings and goal-setting skills. Several items fell at different relative positions for minority and majority students, however. Self-confidence and self-esteem were typically higher on the list for majority students as was the need for assertiveness training. The need for adequate rest, however, was a higher priority for minority students.

Where multivariate differences existed between the raw scores of minority and majority students, the item is flagged with an asterisk in table 2 for the group with the highest score. Thus, while the overall importance of this area was typically lower for minority students, the raw score ratings for several items from Schools 1 and 3 were significantly higher for minority students than for the majority students. Caution must therefore be taken not to mask absolute differences by simply observing the descriptive priorization of items by the two groups. For example, in School 3 where the relative order of the items is similar across groups, minority students had significantly higher rating for self-confidence/self-esteem, problem-solving/decision-making, assertiveness, goal setting, and anger management. Similarly, problem-solving/decision-making, goal setting, and adequate rest were rated higher by minority students in School 1.

Only in School 3 were there significant gender differences. For all of the items listed in table 2 except money management, female students had higher ratings than male students. This finding suggests that as an overall health-related area, mental/emotional health instruction was of particular concern for female students in this school.

Counselling services

The between-school differences were very obvious in needs for counselling service with both majority and minority students from School 3 identifying only two items as important, whereas comparative groups in the other schools identified between five and eight items as important. The relative importance of the particular items listed in this area also differed more dramatically between minority and majority students.

Career and course counselling remained a consistent priority for both groups, suggesting that it forms a stable, essential, and perhaps foremost component of school-based counselling services. Personal counselling

Table 2 High Priority Individual Items Related to Mental/Emotional Health Instruction

	School 1	School 2	School 3
Majority Student Views	Self-confidence/self-esteem	Problem-solving/decision-making	Stress management
	Problem-solving/decision-making	Self-confidence/self-esteem	Adequate rest
	Assertiveness	Money management	Time management
	Money management	Adequate rest	Coping with the future
	Stress management	Stress management	Money management
	Time management	Time management	Self-confidence/self-esteem
	Coping with the future	Assertiveness	Problem-solving/decision-making
	Anger management	Anger management	Goal setting
	Adequate rest	Coping with the future	
	Goal setting	Goal setting	
	Self-awareness (feelings)	Self-awareness (feelings)	
Minority Student Views	Problem-solving/decision-making*	Adequate rest	Stress management
	Goal setting*	Problem-solving/decision-making	Adequate rest
	Stress management	Self-confidence/self-esteem	Money management
	Self-confidence/self-esteem	Money management	Time management
	Time management	Stress management	Coping with the future
	Adequate rest*	Anger management	Self-confidence/self-esteem*
	Assertiveness	Time management	Problem-solving/decision-making*
	Money management	Goal setting	Assertiveness*
	Anger management	Coping with the future	Goal setting*
	Coping with the future	Assertiveness	Anger management*
	Self-awareness (feelings)	Self-awareness (feelings)	

was also a relatively high need for both groups. For majority students, non-judgmental listening was the second highest need; it was of lower priority for minority students. Some additional items related to suicide counselling, bereavement counselling, and physical/emotional abuse counselling/referral were also noted more often by majority students. Minority students placed more importance on referrals to community resources. This observation may reflect a service modality issue with majority students being more inclined to identify and access school-based services than their minority peers.

The location of the asterisks in table 3 provide further evidence of the generally higher weight placed on counselling services by majority students. Referral to community services was the only item rated higher (on the five-point Likert scale) by minority students (in one school). Where differences were observed for non-judgmental listening, abuse counselling/referral, suicide counselling, and bereavement counselling, majority students had higher ratings. For School 3, majority students demonstrated a significantly higher need for career/course counselling; in the other schools, minority and majority students gave it equal weight.

In Schools 1 and 3, there were significant gender differences in counselling service needs. Those differences existed for all but referral to community resources and community advocacy in School 1, with female students consistently rating these items higher than male students. Most of the items that did not appear as high priorities in the descriptive analysis were, nonetheless, rated as significantly more important by female students, suggesting that this may again be an area where gender-specific assessment and intervention may be warranted. Interestingly, there was no interaction between gender and majority/minority status.

School performance

In each school, minority students identified more high-priority-school performance needs than majority students, with some between-school differences observed. Table 4 lists the high-priority items for both groups. More interest in classes, better comprehension, better teaching styles/methods, and the ability to communicate with teachers about difficulties encountered were relatively high priorities for both groups. Majority students placed more emphasis on study skills and course options, although both also appeared in the list of priorities for minority students. Minority students highlighted the need for more focus on core subjects, better literacy skills, tutorial instruction, and English as a second language instruction. One would expect such differences, given the additional tasks of minority students in adjusting to a new language and, in many cases, new modes and styles of learning. The fact that minority students also note the need for more motivation to attend may be a reflection of their struggles with some of these other currently unmet needs.

For many of the items in this section, the ratings for minority students were significantly higher than those of majority students, as indicated by the asterisks in table 4. These differences clearly contributed to the higher overall importance of this area for minority students in all three schools and confirm the necessity for specific attention to minority student needs.

In all three schools there were significant gender differences for many of the items in this area. Female students rated interest in classes, better comprehension, study skills, and academic self-confidence more highly than male students. Male students, on the other hand, identified higher needs for motivation to attend, life-skills focus, better teaching methods/styles, English as a second language instruction, and additional course options, as well as the need to decrease behaviour problems. While school performance represents an area of significant overall importance, especially for minority students, the pattern of needs for male and female students differs significantly. Unlike mental/emotional health instruction and counselling services where higher needs consistently existed for female students, male students may require particular attention in some school performance areas.

Table 4 High-Priority Individual Items Related to School Performance

	School 1	School 2	School 3
Majority Student Views	Interest in classes	Interest in classes	Interest in classes*
	Comprehension	Study skills	Study skills*
	Study skills	Comprehension	Comprehension
	Teaching styles/methods	Communication	Teaching styles/methods
	Communication	Course options	Time on school work
	Course options	Life skills focus	Communication
	Life skills focus	Teaching styles/methods	
	Time on school work	Time on school work	
	More motivation to attend		
	Self-confidence (school)		
Minority Student Views	Interest in classes	Interest in classes	Interest in classes
	Comprehension*	Comprehension	Comprehension
	Communication*	Life skills focus	Teaching styles/methods
	Study skills	Study skills	Study skills
	Teaching styles/methods	Time on school work	Communication
	Time on school work*	Communication	Time on school work
	Focus on core subjects*	Focus on core subjects*	Life skills focus
	Self-confidence (school)*	Course options	Motivation to attend*
	Motivation to attend	Teaching styles/methods	
	Course options	Tutorial instruction	
	Literacy skills*	Literacy skills*	
	Life skills focus		
	English as a 2nd language		

Discussion

For both minority and majority youths, systemic needs related to school building and grounds, safety and accident prevention, and school atmosphere were primary areas of health concern. This observation reinforces the current emphasis on systemic factors as important areas of health intervention (Jasnoski and Warner 1991), particularly for minority youth. The complex task of becoming bicultural and issues of poverty, racism, and discrimination may increase the health needs of youth from different cultural backgrounds (Hicks et al. 1993; Kagitcibasi and Berry 1989). For recent immigrants, in particular, external sources of self-worth and support are left behind in the country of origin, while accumulated failures due to communication and cultural barriers increase environmental pressures (Baptiste 1990). Cameron and colleagues (1991, p.5) raise a very relevant question: "Could it be that the way we treat children has as much impact upon their health as what we try to teach them?"

The observation that mental/emotional health-related needs as well as counselling services were consistently rated as less important by minority students may at first seem surprising, given clear evidence for increased demands based on language and cultural differences (Baptiste 1990; Kagitcibasi and Berry 1989). Some writers suggest, however, that immigrant youth may downplay mental-health issues due to cultural stigmatization (Barker and Adelman 1994; Naidoo 1992) or be more inclined to utilize services within their own communities that are more culturally appropriate (Canino 1988). The lower overall emphasis on mental/emotional health and counselling services, in this study, may also be affected by the appropriateness of current means of intervention in schools. New immigrants, in particular, make infrequent use of traditional counselling services, based primarily on language and cultural barriers (Sue and Sue 1990). Existing forms of counselling programming may need to be examined, therefore, for language or cultural biases, and better links to the minority student population developed.

The differences in priorization of specific mental/emotional health needs may also reflect culturally defined concepts and values. A Canadian researcher on multicultural issues describes the common North American mental-health considerations of autonomy, independence, and internal control as culture-bound values: "Most visible minorities originate in collectivist societies" that value interdependence, close family relationships, and respect for authority (Naidoo 1992, p.173). Interventions may, therefore, need to be tailored to the specific needs of minority adolescents and addressed through culturally appropriate means. A number of writers have considered a self-help or support-group approach to be the most applicable for this population. School counsellors could be instrumental in developing and facilitating what Cardenas, Taylor, and Adelman call "transition support groups" (1993 p.203), which would provide an opportunity for minority students to express their fears and their struggles within a supportive environment.

Particular attention should be given to the fact that career and course counselling remained a consistent priority for both minority and majority students. The importance of career as a central component of school counselling services was highlighted in a recent survey of 1600 career counsellors across Canada (Conger, Hiebert, and Hong-Farrell 1993). It is particularly important to note that, for minority students, this represents one area in which they are ready and willing to call upon school-based services. This observation is consistent with other evidence that ethnic minority students are more willing to seek out counselling services for academic, career, or financial issues than for personal concerns (Gim, Atkinson, and Whiteley 1990). Engaging minority adolescents in career counselling may, therefore, provide an opportunity for counsellors and educators to build stronger connections to minority youth and, in turn, link them to other forms of counselling services. Tannenbaum (1990), has developed an "English Conversation Group" model for working with Vietnamese adolescents. This program allows the facilitator to make positive therapeutic interventions without the stigma of mental health intervention.

In the area of school performance, minority students identified a much greater need than majority students. This higher overall need likely reflects the barriers to academic success involved in working in a second language (Hicks et al. 1993) as well as the distraction from academics felt by minority student as they contend with the numerous tasks involved in acculturation and/or the development of a bicultural identity (Kagitcibasi and Berry 1989). The former can be seen in the emphasis by minority students on literacy skills, tutorial instruction, and English as a second language, as well as the higher ratings given to such items as the need for better comprehension and difficulties communicating with teachers. The distraction from academics is mirrored in the minority students, emphasis on the need for more motivation to attend.

Where gender differences were observed in this study, female students from both majority and minority groups consistently rated counselling and mental/emotional health items as higher priorities than male students. This finding is supported in the general counselling literature and has been noted with regard to minorities as well (Gim et al. 1990). The pattern was less consistent for school-performance needs with some items being more important to males and others more important to females. These findings suggest gender may also need to be taken into account in planning and implementing programming in these areas, but that no special gender considerations need to be made for minority students.

In conclusion, it is clearly important to include in the program-planning process a means to assess the specific needs of minority populations. If the data from the minority students are not drawn out from the larger data set, programming that is insensitive to ethnic minority adolescent needs may result. In addition, the resultant programming "must be conceptualized from the perspective of promoting healthy development, rather than from the perspective of diagnosing disturbance" (Hicks et al. 1993, p. 81). Fundamental to this approach is the maintenance of an ecological perspective in which adolescents, their families, and the community are treated as separate but interacting systems. Educational and counselling programs developed to meet the needs of minority adolescents should address not only their specific needs for coping resources and skills, but also contextual factors related to the majority population's attitudes and behaviour, and the cultural compatibility of existing forms of intervention.

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Modèle de réintégration socio-professionnelle pour personnes assistées sociales

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Situation actuelle

Le système de sécurité sociale instauré au Canada au début des années 1950 reflète la tendance prise par le gouvernement pour venir en aide aux plus démunis, afin de leur assurer le minimum requis et de leur permettre de traverser une situation difficile. Au cours des décennies suivantes, le gouvernement a multiplié les services. Ce système, devenu tellement bureaucratisé, s'est enlisé de plus en plus dans le paternalisme et la prise en charge des problèmes par l'État. Cette transférabilité des problèmes à l'État est devenue tellement vraie qu'il s'agit d'une croyance populaire.

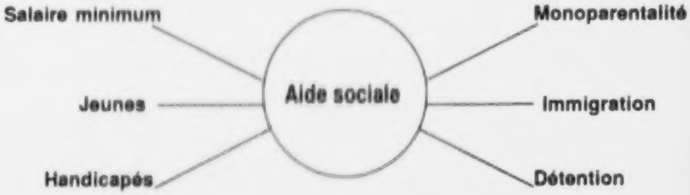
Cette recherche prend ses données principalement au Québec, mais peut également servir de modèle partout où le nombre justifie une intervention. Le visage de l'aide sociale a changé au cours des années, passant de 300 000 personnes à la fin des années 1980 à 808 000 personnes en 1995, au Québec seulement. Le contexte économique a favorisé une telle éclosion. La situation actuelle force le gouvernement à trouver de nouvelles solutions à un problème social en pleine expansion. Ne sachant plus quoi faire pour diminuer l'hémorragie, le gouvernement a instauré des mesures répressives pour lutter contre la criminalité sous toutes ses formes. Une autre série de mesures favorise l'intégration ou la réintégration au travail. Toutes ces mesures sont vouées à un succès relatif, car les dirigeants s'interrogent sur le comment plutôt que sur le pourquoi, ne tenant compte ainsi que d'une partie de la réalité. Un régime à deux niveaux d'intervention pourrait changer considérablement la situation. Il serait centré sur les besoins psychologiques et financiers de la personne.

Nouveau régime proposé

Premier niveau d'intervention

Un changement dans l'organisation sociale est proposé. Un principe de base devrait retenir l'attention, soit le principe de protection.

Un écran de protection devrait être mis en place afin de favoriser la stabilité de la situation d'une personne avant qu'elle entre à l'aide sociale. Une longue période d'inactivité ne favorise pas une réintégration, qu'elle soit sociale ou professionnelle.



Jeunes

- Il faudrait intégrer le décrochage scolaire dans le processus d'apprentissage.
- Une force d'intervention contre les catastrophes naturelles devrait être mise sur pied ainsi que l'extension des prêts et bourses.

Monoparentalité

- Le groupe de soutien et la formation à distance pourraient être utilisés comme moyens pour combattre l'isolement.

Salaire minimum

- Les mêmes avantages de l'aide sociale devraient être consentis (assurance-médicaments).

Immigration

- L'utilisation du potentiel créatif des immigrants pourrait donner un sens différent à leur intégration.
- Un fonds de démarrage d'entreprise pour immigrants en collaboration avec leur communauté pourrait être créé.

Handicapés

- La possibilité de sous-traitance avec le gouvernement pourrait être une avenue intéressante.
- Un crédit d'impôt à l'embauche favoriserait leur intégration au travail.

Détention

- Le travail peut s'accroître en détention. Les achats gouvernementaux doivent être sollicités pour favoriser la réinsertion ainsi qu'une certaine forme de coopératives de travail.

Deuxième niveau d'intervention

Le caractère financier de l'aide sociale étant connu, un modèle de support à la personne est proposé en mettant l'accent sur un retour à la vie active :

- affermir le caractère temporaire de l'aide sociale;
- apporter des services d'orientation et de psychologie;
- élaborer un plan de réinsertion socioprofessionnelle dès l'arrivée à l'aide sociale;
- faire un suivi du plan de réinsertion socioprofessionnelle;
- former des groupes de soutien.

Affermir le caractère temporaire de ce service

L'utilisateur du service pourrait constater que, même si la situation vécue est difficile, il est possible de réintégrer la société. Le payeur du service pourrait voir changer sa vision s'il y avait un caractère temporaire délimité par réglementation gouvernementale (cinq à six ans au maximum à l'aide sociale). La publicité pourrait le rejoindre également s'il était certain de pouvoir bénéficier d'un tel service (exemples : publicité sur un service de réintégration, publicité avec des personnes ayant réussi l'intégration).

Apporter des services d'orientation professionnelle et de psychologie

Le bénéficiaire pourrait alors être assuré que ses problèmes personnels peuvent être entendus en toute confiance vu que les professions d'orienteur et de psychologue obligent au secret professionnel par la loi. Une démarche brève en psychologie peut être un préalable à la démarche en orientation de groupe. L'objectif final de la démarche vise la réinsertion socioprofessionnelle par la formation et le travail.

Plusieurs personnes diront que ces services existent déjà, mais on fait appel à ces professionnels seulement lorsque la situation dégénère en catastrophe. Une personne ayant des problèmes de consommation d'alcool ou de drogue peut traîner cet état de fait pendant plusieurs années sans que personne n'intervienne. De plus, les personnes assistées sociales possèdent un degré de confiance limité envers le système.

Il serait illusoire de confier la réintégration socioprofessionnelle aux agents d'aide sociale parce qu'ils n'ont pas le temps de le faire et ne possèdent en général que peu de formation dans ces domaines.

Élaborer un plan individualisé de réinsertion socioprofessionnelle dès l'arrivée à l'aide sociale

Un plan de réinsertion faisant suite à la démarche psychologique si celle-ci est nécessaire comprend les éléments suivants et font partie d'une démarche complète de réintégration :

- sentiments vécus à l'aide sociale;
- niveaux de moralité;
- positionnement face au travail;
- courbes de chômage;
- moments de responsabilisation;
- bilan (emploi, formation, reconnaissance des acquis expérientiels, loisir, bénévolat);
- information sur les programmes offerts;
- recherche d'information dans le milieu;
- session de créativité;
- plan de réinsertion socioprofessionnelle;
- évaluation;
- suivi;
- groupe de soutien.

L'utilisation des formes de travail dans le bilan s'avère nécessaire à cause des étapes différentes de réinsertion. La reconnaissance des acquis expérientiels sert de point de départ pour les uns et de point d'arrivée pour d'autres. Pour la plupart d'entre eux, ces éléments sont empiriques.

Faire un suivi du plan de réinsertion

Ce suivi permet aux intervenants chargés de la mise en application du plan d'améliorer ou de changer leur mode d'intervention. Cette étape du plan de réinsertion peut être assumée par un fonctionnaire. L'évaluation et l'informatisation sont des éléments à ne pas négliger. Une forme de dossier unique en réinsertion pourrait être mise en place afin d'assurer une continuité.

Des groupes de soutien

L'étape du groupe de soutien devient nécessaire vu l'ampleur de la démarche proposée et des difficultés à contourner. Le groupe de soutien permet de répartir les problèmes rencontrés et de trouver des solutions afin de réussir la réinsertion socioprofessionnelle. Un animateur externe devrait être en mesure de faire avancer le groupe. De plus, il doit garder à l'esprit que le but ultime visé est l'autonomie des bénéficiaires et non pas l'institutionnalisation d'un groupe communautaire.

Réintégration locale

- Utiliser les services d'orientation et de psychologie existants.
- Favoriser les groupes communautaires locaux comme début organisé d'une réinsertion réussie.

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Partnerships in health-care adjustment—The Edmonton experience

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Introduction

Alberta's delivery of health-care service is rapidly changing and undergoing significant restructuring. This reconfiguration has resulted in many organizational changes that impact the employees involved in health-care delivery. This paper describes how the Edmonton/St. Albert Region has responded to the challenge of providing workforce-adjustment services.

In January 1994, the Alberta government announced that $15 million would be made available, over three years, to assist health-care workers across the province adjust to health-system restructuring. Alberta Health was in the process of consolidating over 200 local hospital boards into 17 regional health-care authorities, each responsible for health-care delivery within its geographic area. It was recognized that the restructuring changes would have great impact on many employees, their families, and their communities. The tripartite (employer, union, and government) Workforce Adjustment Planning Committee, based on the Human Resources Development Canada Industrial Adjustment Services model, was created to plan and manage this initiative across the province.

The ministers of Health and Labour announced that newly formed joint regional committees would manage workforce-adjustment initiatives in each of the 17 health-authority regions. These joint regional committees (JRC) are modelled after and supported by the provincial Workforce Adjustment Planning Committee. Each region has the authority to make decisions on how it chooses to implement the mandate.

Region 10—Edmonton/St. Albert

Region 10 is geographically the smallest of the provincial regions. However, it serves a large population base: Edmonton (637,000) and St. Albert (44,000). These workers fall within the jurisdiction of the Capital Health Authority. The Region 10 Committee is also responsible for services to employees of the Alberta Cancer Board and the Provincial Mental Health Board. It is estimated that there are 18,000 health-care workers in Region 10. To date, approximately 4,060 workers have been affected, with a forecast of more to come.

The Region 10 JRC first met in September 1994 with a mandate to plan and deliver adjustment services for workers affected between April 1, 1993, and March 31, 1997. The committee comprises representatives from the nine employers and nine unions impacted by the restructuring, and ex-officio consultants from Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC) and Alberta Advanced Education and Career Development (AE&CD). To encourage collaboration, co-chairs from both the employer and the union side were appointed, and secretarial duties rotated. As well, an employer volunteered to act as treasurer for all financial matters. Regular meetings were established.

The Joint Regional Committee is assisted by a handbook produced by the Workforce Adjustment Planning Committee, which identifies the three objectives of this project:
- to help employees—who have lost or are about to lose their jobs—find re-employment;
- to help current employees remain employed; and
- to facilitate the voluntary withdrawal of employees from the workforce.

Initially, Region 10 JRC collected data elements to determine the number of employees impacted since April 1, 1993. The cuts ranged widely across occupations including managers, administrators, lab technologists, social workers, physiotherapists, trades people, dieticians, cleaners, and laundry workers. In order to accurately capture the diversity of the impact, statistics were provided by employers in six categories: management, nursing, auxiliary nursing, professional, technical, and support.

A directory of community programs and services was compiled. This exercise utilized the resources of both HRDC and the Career Development Centre (CDC), and illustrated that limited material existed that was specifically targeted towards the health-care worker.

The next step was to assess the needs of affected workers. In November 1994, a series of eight focus groups was conducted. Union members who had already experienced six months of unemployment were asked four questions:
- What programs/services have been helpful so far?
- What obstacles have you encountered?
- What programs and services would you like to see made available to you?
- What suggestions or recommendations do you have for the JRC on how to allocate the Workforce Adjustment Funds?

A two-day information fair for employed and unemployed health-care workers was held in February 1995. Approximately 550 participants completed another needs assessment. From these two initiatives the following needs were identified:
- free career/job counselling focused on future trends;
- ways to access the "hidden" job market, emotional/psychological support, support groups, and networking;
- career counselling by people who know and understand the needs of health-care workers;
- funding for education and retraining;
- access to funds and services free of bureaucracy;

- centralized access to information and programs;
- assistance in dealing with unemployment insurance;
- identifying transferable skills.

By this time, the JRC had developed working philosophies that continue to guide decisions:

- All JRC decisions are reached by consensus, not majority.
- Avoid duplication by using existing community resources as fully as possible.
- JRC business is openly communicated between all committee members and to health-care workers.
- As much as possible, funds go to the health-care workers, rather than overhead and administration.
- Create the partnerships required to meet objectives.
- Whenever possible, provide service prior to the layoff process.
- Evaluate all initiatives.

Partnerships—A new way of doing business

Following the initial work done by the JRC, the stage was set to implement the mandate. A collaborative approach utilizing the strengths of each partner unfolded. Contributions were made by the CDC, HRDC, and the Health Care Workers' Referral Centre (HCWRC).

The Career Development Centre (CDC), a provincial government office, provides the public with career planning, and educational and employment services. In building the relationship between a government department and a community project, the CDC made a commitment to provide office space within the centre for specialized service delivery to affected health-care workers. This arrangement allows the JRC to save administrative expenses, to build upon existing community services, and to enhance centralized access. The CDC gained visibility and increased exposure. This relationship allows the CDC to make a substantial contribution to the work of the JRC and to provide service access to affected workers.

Other developments include arrangements where the Health Care Workers' Referral Centre staff assess and refer health-care workers directly into Career Development Centre workshops, sidestepping the normal CDC referral process. Meeting-room and workshop space in the centre has been made available to Human Resources Development Canada and Health Care Workers' Referral Centre staff.

Human Resources Development Canada brought to the partnership advice and support; their programs and services, including group and individual counselling; and income support for health-care workers in the form of unemployment insurance benefits.

In recognition that health-care workers are unfamiliar with HRDC processes relating to unemployment insurance, efforts were made to provide information sessions and to streamline access to service, using a designated staff person to expedite special unemployment insurance issues.

Beginning in January 1996, Health Care Workers' Referral Centre staff began recommending clients for tuition support, utilizing JRC funds and income support using HRDC Feepayer Program dollars. Together they monitor expenditures and decisions. This unique step forward in the partnership arrangement authorizes the financial expenditures of one partner's budget by another partner.

Recognizing the need to hire expertise to work closely with the JRC and to operationalize committee decisions, a career-transition centre called the Health Care Workers' Referral Centre opened in January 1995.

The centre is staffed by a coordinator who oversees the initiative, including the counsellors and clerical/administrative support personnel. The centre provides individual career counselling, referral to appropriate programs, and processing of funding applications. An outreach worker has been hired to follow up with health-care workers who have been laid off since 1 April 1993, and have not accessed any services. Six career counsellors have been contracted to provide career-counselling and career-planning workshops at the various hospitals. They work closely with health-site contact workers who facilitate the information flow to workers still employed, but anticipating job loss. Where a need exists for specialized programs, delivery is arranged using private contractors.

Currently, programs and services offered by the HCWRC, contracted agencies, or the on-site workers include career planning, job search, self-employment assistance, career-enhancement programs, and direct financial support. Ongoing evaluation of all programs is conducted.

Lessons learned

In the year and a half that the Edmonton project has been underway, there have been some significant lessons learned. The driving force behind the initiative is the vision and the commitment of the JRC committee members. The critical factor in bringing members of the JRC to consensus has been a belief in the importance of providing support to people who are affected by restructuring. All employer, union, and government committee representatives came to the table with expectations of how the project would unfold. Since the first meeting, those expectations have evolved. There is no "right" answer that will ensure the success of the project. The needs of the workers must direct the interventions that will help them find their way in whatever new endeavors they undertake.

Committee members each hold philosophical and organizational positions. There may be fairly wide differences. In order to set policies and plans in place that can accommodate this divergence, a willingness to step outside normal roles and focus on the objective is required, and demonstrated, by all committee members. All parties must be willing to make adjustments and modifications on a regular basis. The project is extremely responsive, and as the needs of the workers change, the programs are adjusted accordingly. It is tempting to want to change government systems to meet the needs of the health-care workers. While there is always room for movement and increased flexibility within bureaucracies, provincial and national programs and systems cannot be ignored or circumvented for local needs. Ways must be found to compromise.

The number of people accessing the Health Care Workers' Referral Centre shows that it is having an impact on health-care workers. It is important not to underestimate the social impact that the changes in the health-care system are having on individuals, families, and society. After receiving assistance from centre staff, people move on, feeling empowered and able to make changes in their lives. The initiative is flexible enough to meet the diverse needs of the population. It is helping!

Conclusion

This experience in dealing with major restructuring in the health sector can be applied to other industries. Our experience has shown that, by combining resources and working together in partnerships, results can be achieved that will benefit affected workers and the community.

Ready-Set-Work!

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The education of adults in a vocational setting is an increasingly complex business. As the employment specialist at CDI College of Business & Technology in Winnipeg, it is up to me to prepare our clientele for the work search after their graduation. With the unfolding of the "new economy," this task requires much more than the traditional job-search curriculum allows, and thus I hope to illustrate some features of the Self-Directed Work Search course I used in an effort to bring the program into the next century.

CDI College is in the business of providing adults with vocational training in computer skills. The methodology used is self-directed. The programs offered include modern office skills, computer programming, Local Area Network (LAN), and electronic and computer technology.

The average age of a customer at CDI College in Winnipeg is 33 years. Traditionally, many are "displaced workers." This is one of those charming euphemisms we use to describe people who have lost their jobs because they were in occupations that have gone the way of the dinosaur. There are many such men and women who fit this description and it is they who, needing new skills to render themselves once again marketable, come to our school. They do not seek an education so much as they seek a job. They are not seeking a diploma as much as they seek the identity that comes with employment. To say that they are displaced is to declare them not only out of work but out of place in terms of the way they view themselves and the way their community sees them. As a corollary, many come to CDI with a profound sense of loss, bitterness, and a feeling of helplessness. This can make the task of helping them a daunting one, and therefore the obstacles we face should be explored.

Twice during their tenure at CDI College, our customers they are spoken to about the economy of which they are a part. They hear it at the outset during their orientation, and then at the end of their program during the final two weeks that make up the Work Search class. The hope is that by understanding what has put them where they are, both physically and emotionally, they may be better prepared to encounter a world without jobs.

"What's that you say…a world without jobs! You're not serious, are you?" This is the normal response to the lecture, and when one considers the conditioning we have received about jobs, it is perfectly understandable. So is the fear and the excitement we see. The shock and disbelief about the realities of the new market-place present us with the first obstacle to overcome, in our preparation for the work search. The following demonstrates how we present these ideas to our students.

There is a revolution taking place in the world that will have as great an impact on you and the society you live in as the Industrial Revolution had on our ancestors. We are in the first years of what some thinkers have referred to as the "de-jobbed economy." It is the dawn of a world without jobs.

This is not to say that we will have nothing to do. Far from it! There are— and will continue to be—tremendous opportunities to do work that will have to be done in order to fire the engines of the economy. Our generation will just have to learn to do it in a way different from the ways of the past. The days of obtaining employment and hanging onto it for dear life until retirement with a gold watch and a fat pension are gone forever. The Information Revolution has overthrown it. The king is dead…long live the king! Just who the new sovereign is remains the question that must be answered.

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, people did not have employment in the sense that we define it, with set hours, clearly defined job descriptions, pay structures, and myriad benefits attached. A man had skills that he had painstakingly acquired in an apprenticeship, and he sought out those who had work that needed to be done. They came together and formed a contract to do the task at hand, whether it be to build a ship or assemble barrels for a brewery. When the work was done, the worker was paid and moved on to the next man with work that needed to be done. Should there be none readily available, the worker would stay home and tend a flock of sheep, work in the garden, or labour in a cottage industry that helped maintain hearth and home. The individual worker was closely tied to his family and his community, with the loyalties we normally associate with our employers being firmly linked to wife and children.

With the arrival of the Age of Machines, society changed drastically in ways that closely parallel the transition our society is going through today. With the arrival of the great industrial interest, the world was transformed from the pastoral serenity of Thomas Hardy to the dark portraits by Charles Dickens. This was the day of monotonous labour for long hours in harsh conditions in the employ of one company. This did not alter for age or sex. The huge factories that sprang up in the expanding urban centres needed great quantities of labour, so now workers were loyal to a new interest in a permanent relationship that rendered life very tenuous should they leave. The term used by those who looked upon this new age with disdain was *wage slaves*. The new world of jobs was no longer related to a piece of work needed for a specific interval, but permanent union with an employer who provided workers with a living, with out reliance on secondary sources. Out of this grew the trade-union movement, benefits such as pensions and vacation pay, and ultimately a sense of dependence on that one single thread called "the job."

What makes this relevant to the modern worker is that the paradigm created by the Industrial Revolution is the one that we live in today. We feel secure within our world of jobs and feel deeply threatened when we suspect they may go away. The idea that a world without jobs is unfolding is frightening, and naturally so. It would seem that the very thing that we use to feed and shelter our families is being ripped away.

One student, upon hearing of the coming of the de-jobbed economy, loudly proclaimed that she was going to start a letter-writing campaign to the premier in order to stop this dreadful scourge. One must be gentle in explaining that this is akin to King Canute sitting in the surf ordering the tide back. No matter how powerful the man, he will still get wet.

At the onset of the era of mass industrialization, groups sprang up to denounce the de-humanizing influence of the factory and the destruction of the family. People felt terrified that if they lost the newly acquired job in some mill or machine shop, they would surely be ruined, for they depended upon it entirely. The anguish was palpable. Some even took to violence, taking on the name Luddites and smashing the hated machines in the night. The world was turned upside down.

At this point a bond is made between those who live now and those who have gone before. The men and women in the CDI Work Search class share these feelings today as their world of jobs disappears. For many, it is the first step in coping with the transition, for they see people in history feeling what they feel, yet it is the very thing they cling to that threatened their predecessors. Perhaps there is less to fear than originally thought?

Other facets of the de-jobbing phenomenon is the evidence one can show a class to demonstrate that there is indeed something taking place that verifies what the instructor is telling them. As the workers during the Industrial Revolution were locked into long hours extending to years of hard manual labour, the workers today find that part-time, temporary, and contract employment is becoming the norm. More and more people are having to cope with periodic lay-offs, or the complete elimination of occupations. Technology has accelerated the need to continually upgrade skills and to demands generalized skills over specialized ones. A phrase used at CDI is "you will no longer earn a living, but rather learn a living." The need for this is clearly visible to all.

In order to help prepare graduates for the market-place, much information is provided to allow understanding of what is affecting their lives. Such traditional job-search tools as résumés and cover letters are giving way to marketing plans that require all students to view themselves as companies, and their skills as products and services to be offered to clients. Participants in the two-week class are divided into companies, with responsibilities for assisting themselves and their peers put together marketing plans, and assisting with interviewing skills. The team building is done via personality assessments given to all before the class commences. The assessments used are the Personal Profile Survey by the Carlson Learning Company of Minneapolis, Minnesota. The students themselves learn more of this as the class progresses and how they can use the profile to further their careers.

One of the great obstacles encountered by CDI Winnipeg in the task of preparing our clients for work is the lack of a work ethic. The general assumption has been made that this deficiency of moral principles surrounding productive labour is encountered only in those young adults in the program. Upon closer scrutiny, while this may be true generally, it is discovered that a large proportion of older displaced workers suffer from it as well. Overall, there are a large number of people in schools and work places today who do not share the historic concern for doing an honest day's work for an honest day's wage. A good work ethic helped to build this continent into what it is today, yet many have expressed to the author that they do not see the redeeming quality in their own life of hard work, let alone the benefit to the larger community. This does not bode well when one contemplates the challenges presented by the advent of the new economic realities.

Once again, history may have something relevant to say to us. In the Western industrialized world, the work ethic that guided our successes descended from the Judeo-Christian tradition. The Old Testament can be examined to discern that God wishes us to work hard for honest goals that enhance both the individual and the community. In Proverbs (10:14 and 14:23) we read "Being lazy will make you poor, but hard work will make you rich", and, "work and you will earn a living: if you sit around talking you will be poor." This latter message is particularly daunting, as this is what we seem to do all day long as academics and counsellors.

Throughout the New Testament, the same ideals are urged, always to the glory of God and the betterment of man and his society. The most telling of these is from Paul's second letter to the Thessalonians (2 Thes. 3:6–15):

> Our brothers, we command you in the name of our Lord Jesus Christ to keep away from all brothers who are living a lazy life and who do not follow the instructions that we gave them. You yourselves know very well that you should do just what we did. We were not lazy when we were with you. We did not accept anyone's support without paying for it. Instead we worked and toiled; we kept working day and night so as to not be an expense to any of you. We did this, not because we have no right to demand our support; we did it to be an example for you to follow. While we were with you, we used to say to you: Whoever refuses to work is not allowed to eat. We say this because we hear that there are some people among you who live lazy lives and who do nothing except meddle in other people's business. In the name of the Lord Jesus Christ, we command and warn them to lead orderly lives and work to earn their own living. But you, brothers, must not get tired of doing good. It may be that someone there will not obey the message we send you in this letter. If so, take note of

> him and have nothing to do with him, so that he will be ashamed. But do not treat him as an enemy; instead, warn him as a brother.

Many secular thinkers have proposed that our ancestors' admirable attitudes toward work have been lost. Modern culture has focused on a pleasant present as promoted by the mass media and educators steeped in the lore of the '60s. Many believe, in this state of spiritual vacuum, that finding oneself and instant gratification is more desirable than the self-denial and diligent patience that actually earned rewards. In truth, how can we expect workers in Canada to adopt a work ethic when the social welfarism of our system strives to destroy it? The ideal is that of state care from cradle to grave, that emphasizes taking care of us rather than letting us care for our own. This represents an enormous obstacle to preparation for the workforce that all educators and employers face. It is one that one school or company cannot hope to overcome alone, yet each must make some effort to at least mitigate its impact on a local audience. The best that we can do at CDI Winnipeg is to enforce dress and deportment codes and stress punctuality and attendance throughout the course.

The other great obstacle that should be surmounted is a frequent lack of self-understanding. A great number of students declare an ignorance of what skills they possess or the kind of personality they have, both of which are vital in attempting to market themselves and to work with others. It is an axiom of good marketing that sales representatives must know their product in order to persuade a client to buy it. To assist in this process, we use the Personal Profile Survey (PPS) mentioned above, and it has proven to be an extremely effective tool.

The PPS is a self-administered assessment questionnaire answered by the student and interpreted by the employment specialist prior to entry into the Work Search class. The results are based on the universally accepted theory that there are four core personality styles that dictate how we behave. They are:

"D" or Dominance

Emphasis is on shaping the environment by overcoming opposition, to accomplish results. Tendencies include getting immediate results, causing action, and accepting challenges. A dominant personality desires an environment that includes power and authority, prestige and challenge, and the opportunity for individual accomplishments, but also needs others who weigh the pros and cons and calculate risks. To be more effective in the workplace, such a person needs difficult assignments and the understanding that it is not possible to work alone.

"I" or Influential

Emphasis is on shaping the environment by bringing others into alliance to accomplish results. This person's tendencies include contacting people, making a favourable impression, and articulate. An influential personality desires an environment that includes popularity and social recognition, public recognition of ability, and freedom of expression, but needs others who concentrate on the task and who seek facts. To be more effective, this person needs time-management and objectivity in decision making.

"S" or Steadfast

Emphasis is on cooperating with others to carry out the task. This person's tendencies include performing an accepted work pattern, sitting or staying in one place, and demonstrating patience. A steadfast personality desires an environment that includes a secure situation and maintainance of the status quo unless given reasons for change, but needs others who react quickly to unexpected change and who stretch toward the challenges of an accepted task. To be more effective, this person needs conditioning prior to change and validation of self-worth.

"C" or Conscientious

Emphasis is on working with existing circumstances to promote quality in products or services. This person's tendencies include attention to key directives and standards, concentrating on key details, and working under known circumstances. A conscientious personality desires an environment that includes security assurances, standard operating procedures, and a sheltered environment, but needs others who desire to expand authority and who delegate important tasks. To be more effective, this person needs to develop tolerance for conflict and have the opportunity for careful planning.

Once these above behavioural styles and resulting sub-groups are established for the class, the next step is to instruct them in people-reading skills. This involves quick techniques that trained individuals can execute upon meeting an employer about to interview them or someone in a work or social setting. When they know their own personality and associated the attributes, they will be more able to understand others and how and why they react to them the way they do. In an interview, the high "D" will ask *what* questions, while the high "I" will ask *who* questions. The high "S" will pose *how* queries, and the high "C" will ask *why* questions. In this way, interviewees can determine how best to address the interview questions in a way that will motivate interviewers to hire them. A high "D" likes to know how you may have achieved a bottom line result on a previous assignment, but without much need for detail. The high "C" needs to hear all the details in a logical fashion. The high "I" in very interested in the personal and may dwell on familial relations in the interview, and do whatever possible to achieve a bond with the interviewee. The high "S" interviewer is looking for team players and someone who will fit harmoniously into the organization. These examples demonstrate how students can use the

PPS and subsequent people-reading skills to better their chances of "making the sale."

With a grasp of skills and personal attributes established, students can then assemble a marketing plan that accurately describes their "products and services," the niche in the market they are targetting, and how they intend "advertise" their skills. Here, greater entrepreneurial training than time currently allows is vital and should be accounted for in any future curriculum development.

Turning to the future can be daunting for any of us. The clients served by CDI Winnipeg have much in common with those throughout Canada, in the challenges of lack of a work ethic and a poor understanding of one's own skills. The impact upon our society of the de-jobbed economy will be tremendous on them, and as a corollary, the entire Western industrial world. It also follows that the same reactions we see in the individual will occur on a larger scale. Many will feel liberated and excited by the opportunity to fend for themselves. Others will feel terrified and helpless at the onslaught of forces they do not understand. We should expect that the so-called egalitarian society so painstakingly planned for decades will no longer work, if it ever did. What will replace it?

We will find a return to a heirarchical system, with classes much like those before the Industrial Revolution. In the "upper class" we will find those who are willing to readily assume the role of entrepreneurs and who see the future as filled with challenge rather than obstacles. In another class, we may find what one student referred to as "slackers." These are those among us who refuse to accept the nature of things and wish to remain addicted to the social welfare state in which initiative is replaced by government-run charity. In the third class, we may find those who cannot meet the challenge of the de-jobbed economy, due to physical or mental disability. This is not to say that all who are so challenged cannot make it, for many with physical disabilities have more conviction and strength of character than able-bodied people. For the segment that cannot, however, what few remaining dollars are left in government social-progamming coffers must be channelled to them.

The final question that remains to be put to the student, and to all of us, is, "Where will we find our futures?"

Relationships between personal characteristics and sexual harassment behaviours in male university professors

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Introduction

Sexual harassment is believed to be a severe social problem that emotionally injures women, impairs their functioning in work and school-related activities, and hinders the potential to develop their careers. (See review by Fitzgerald 1993) It is generally recognized that sexual harassment takes on two basic forms. (Koss et al. 1994) One is depicted in a *hostile environment,* in which women are repeatedly exposed to offensive or degrading messages of a sexual nature. The other form is portrayed by *quid pro quo behaviours,* in which women are exploited to engage in sexual behaviours through work- or academic-related threats and promised or actual rewards. These forms of sexual harassment could be initiated by superiors (such as a boss, teacher) as well as co-workers or fellow students.

Although a great deal of research has been conducted on sexual harassment, relatively little attention has been given to the direct empirical study of understanding the origins and development of sexually harassing behaviours by men toward women, and current arguments in this area are speculative in nature. The main approaches proposed to explain sexual harassment include biological, socio-cultural, organizational, feminist, and communication models. Each model concentrates on a specific perspective of sexual harassment, and proposes that certain dynamics contribute to its development and maintenance. Many of the approaches refer to *situational conditions* as the major factors that cause, encourage, or even invite sexual harassment. These conditions include variables such as the power differential between a man and a woman, local or general cultural norms, and the ratio of men to women in a given environment, and so on. (Gutek 1985)

Another common factor in several approaches relates to a man's *personality* as a causal influence of sexual harassment, to be understood and defined as a dispositional individual difference among men that causes them to—or prevents them from—sexually harassing women. This factor seems to be essential in understanding the phenomenon of sexual harassment since, despite cultural, social, educational, situational, organizational, and biological elements common to many situations, not all men sexually harass women. This simple observation necessitates the inclusion of an individual variable that mediates between situations (or biological determinants) and sexual harassment behaviour. While some approaches (such as socio-cultural, organizational, biological, and parts of the feminist models) ignore, deny, or diminish individual difference variables and emphasize common structural and situational conditions, other approaches have recognized and heralded the importance of personality characteristics. Pryor, LaVite, and Stoller (1993) have suggested that sexual harassment is a result of the interaction between both situational and personality variables. Relying on previous research, they speculated that several personality characteristics might contribute to a greater likelihood of sexually harassing, such as need for power. Several other researchers (Cleveland and Kerst 1993; Zalk 1990) hypothesize that this drive for power is related to sexual harrassent, and argue that harassment may function as an expression of the need to control and dominate others. Zalk (1990), in accordance with the contentions of traditional feminist approaches (such as Hoffman 1986), speculated that, in addition to a need for power, men who sexually harass generally hold negative attitudes toward women in general. This argument was supported by Dziech and Weiner's (1984) anecdotal data on professors who sexually harass students, as well as by Pryor's (1987) laboratory research in which he found significant correlations between male students' proclivity to sexually harass women, as evaluated by their responses to hypothetical scenarios, and their attitudes toward women. No field research has been conducted to date that tests the hypothesis about a relationship between men's attitudes toward women and their actual sexual harassment behaviours.

An additional personality factor that might be related to sexual harassment is a person's attitudes toward *sexual* matters. In situations where behaviour might be construed as sexually harassing, the sexual component may have an essential and particular role, since the need for power, as well as misogyny, could relate more to *non*-sexual and generalized offensive behaviours toward women. Thus, the degree of certain sexual motivations could be of significant importance in determining sexually-related offensive behaviours toward women. Therefore, it is hypothesized that attitudes and feelings toward sexuality may mediate and influence a man's proclivity to sexually harass women. (Dziech and Weiner 1984; Pryor 1987)

Current research attempts to test the hypothesis that there is a relationship between certain personality characteristics in men and their sexual harassment behaviours. More specifically, it was hypothesized that the three personal attributes mentioned above (authoritarianism, attitudes toward women, and attitudes toward sexuality) would be found to be related to actual sexual harassment behaviours. These hypotheses were empirically tested by using responses from a mail survey of an anonymous sample of male university professors who were questioned about certain personality characteristics and their sexually harassing behaviours.

Method

Participants

The research participants consisted of a stratified random sample of male professors in a large Canadian university. Nine different faculties in the university were included in the study. Faculties that had only a very small number of professors were excluded from the study. The final sampling frame consisted of all male, full-time professors who were employed in the faculties of arts, business, education, engineering science, kinesiology, law, medicine, science, and social science. A random sample of approximately 20 participants were selected from each faculty. If a faculty consisted of different departments or divisions, a proportional stratified random sample was drawn from that faculty to represent all divisions. From a total sampling frame of approximately 970 professors, 191 were selected to participate in the study.

Instruments

The data were collected through an anonymous questionnaire that was distributed to the participants. The questionnaire included several scales and tests that, apart from the biographic information sheet that always prefaced the other forms, were randomly ordered to control for and reduce order effects on the respondents.

Biographic form

The biographic form was relatively short and asked the respondents to disclose only two personal pieces of information: age and marital status. Supplemental information, however valuable for the current study (such as the respondent's faculty or department), was not collected because of possible personal identification or fears of such identification. In addition, the bottom part of this form provided participants with space to express reactions and comments related to the study topic if they wished to use it.

Teacher-Student Behaviour Survey (TSBS)

The TSBS was based on the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) (Fitzgerald, Shullman, et al. 1988), a commonly used instrument to survey students' experiences of sexual harassment. The original SEQ was a 28-item inventory based on five levels (later changed by the authors to three levels; see Fitzgerald, Gelfand, and Drasgow 1995) of severity of sexual harassment, and contained descriptions of situations considered to be sexually harassing, to which students or employees were asked to respond from the basis of their personal experiences. The main difference between the TSBS and the SEQ was that items and instructions were changed to ask male university professors for information about their behaviours. Therefore, the TSBS question read, "*During the past 24 months* have you ever been in a situation with a *female student* where you…" This revision was similar to the one used by Fitzgerald, Weitzman, et al. (1988) in an earlier survey of university professors.

The TSBS items elicited three types of sexual harassment behaviours from the participants. The first two referred to hostile environment, while the third referred to sexual coercion (Fitzgerald et al. 1995): (a) six items related to *gender harassment* (such as "…told suggestive stories or offensive jokes?"); (b) six items related to *unwanted sexual attention* (such as "…made attempts to stroke or fondle her?"); and (c) six items related to *sexual coercion* (such as "…implied faster promotions or better treatment if she would be sexually cooperative?"). Participants were asked to rate their actual response to each item on a three-point scale (never = 0; sometimes = 1; or often = 2). In addition, participants were asked to rate to what degree they subjectively judged each item to be sexually harassing (not at all = 0; somewhat = 1; severe = 2).

A total *sexual harassment behaviour score* was computed by adding up a participant's responses to all of the items. This score could range from 0 to 36. *A sexual harassment objectively weighted score* was computed as well. This score was determined by multiplying an item response by its type, in assigning weights of 1 to gender harassment, 2 to unwanted sexual attention, and 3 to sexual coercion. Subsequently, items that represented more severe sexual harassment behaviours received more weight in the final score. The weighted score could range from 0 to 60. A *sexual harassment subjectively weighted score* was computed as well by multiplying a participant's response to his involvement with a certain item by how severe he perceived that behaviour to be, and summing up across all items. This score could range between 0 and 72.

The reliability of the TSBS was not tested in this study. However, the similar questionnaire used by Fitzgerald, Weitzman, et al. (1988) yielded a KR-20 internal consistency coefficient of .85, and a two-week test-retest correlation of .86.

Attitudes Toward Women Scale Short Version (AWS)

The AWS (Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp 1973) contains a list of 25 statements pertaining to women's rights and roles, to which participants are asked to rate their opinion on each statement, using a four-point scale (0 = strongly agree; 3 = strongly disagree). For instance, "A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage." The total score could range from 0 (very traditional) to 75 (very liberal). The reliability and validity of the AWS has been supported in several studies. (Spence et al. 1973; Kilpatrick and Smith 1974)

The Authoritarian Personality Scale (APS, balanced F-scale)

The APS (Cherry and Byrne 1977) was originally developed by Adorno Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford (1950) as a measure of ethnocentrism and intolerance, but has been found to closely correspond to authoritarianism in general. Cherry and Byrne (1977) revised the scale to adjust for social changes, and they have reported acceptable levels of reliability and validity. The APS contains a list of 21 statements to which respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement on a six-point scale from +3 (agree very much) to -3 (disagree very much). For example, "If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off." The total APS score could range from 21 (very little authoritarianism) to 147 (very high authoritarianism).

Sexual Opinion Survey (SOS)

The SOS (Fisher et al. 1988) measures attitudes toward sexuality on a continuum of erotophobia–erotophilia, which reflects people's disposition to avoid and negatively respond to sexuality versus the tendency to approach and positively respond to sexuality. It is composed of 21 items to which respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement on a six-point bipolar scale. For example, "I do not enjoy daydreaming about sexual matters." The SOS total score could range from 21 (extremely erotophobic) to 126 (extremely erotophilic). Accumulated research strongly supports the reliability and validity of the SOS.

Procedure

Due to the extremely sensitive nature of the research, ten university professors were approached individually in a pilot study and asked to respond to the research questionnaires, as well as to provide any relevant comments and feedback on them. These professors were not included in the final sample. As a result of their feedback, slight changes were made in the instructions, format, and information provided for the research participants.

A package containing all of the research questionnaires, introduced by a letter of information, was sent to the participants through campus mail. A pre-addressed, new campus mail envelope was attached to the package, in which the participants were asked to return the completed questionnaires. Two weeks later a follow-up package and a revised letter of information was mailed to all of the participants, asking them to return the completed questionnaire in case they had not already done so.

A total of 71 questionnaires (37.2%) were returned. Some of the questionnaires were entirely blank and some were only partially completed, to varying degrees. This made the final sample smaller, and different for the various statistical analyses (see table 1). Although a response rate of 30%–40% is very common in mail surveys (Yammarino, Skinner, and Childers 1991), there is a concern that people who respond to questionnaires might be different in terms of their personality characteristics (especially in aspects related to the topic of the current research) from people who do not respond. To address this concern, several tests were conducted. First, a comparison was made between the age of the respondents and the age of the target population as documented in the university records. It was found that the former (average of 48.8) did not significantly differ from the latter (average of 49.5). Second, comparisons were made between the participants' scores on the APS, AWS, and SOS, and parameters from previously published studies that used similar groups of participants. No significant differences were found. It should also be indicated that approximately 30 (16%) professors deliberately contacted the researcher and apologized for not completing the questionnaires only because of their demanding workload and a lack of time. Thus, in spite of the limited number of completed questionnaires, the data collected from the sample should be assumed to be valid.

Findings

The information from the Biographic Form revealed that the respondents' age ranged from 23 to 65 years ($M = 48.8$; $SD = 9.7$). Forty-seven (82.5%) were married, three (5.3%) single and never married, two (3.5%) divorced and single, two (3.5%) had common-laws partners, and the rest ($n = 3$; 5.3%) had other or no responses. Table 1 presents the actual range of scores, means, and standard deviations for the personality and sexual harassment variables. As can be seen, all variables had wide range of score and sufficient variance to allow for further statistical analyses.

Table 1 Range, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Research Variable

	n	**Range**	*M*	*SD*
Personality				
AWS	55	39–75	63.13	8.22
APS	48	32–97	63.56	16.31
SOS	53	36–120	83.40	19.34
Sexual Harassment				
Behaviour score	52	0–12	1.37	2.58
Objective weight	52	0–21	1.98	4.31
Subjective weight	48	0–6	0.50	1.20

Table 2 presents a frequency distribution of several of the TSBS items as reported by the respondents. These items were chosen to represent the overall responses to the questionnaire. It should be noted, however, that several items were not acknowledged to have been committed by any of the respondents. For instance, none of the respondents admitted to having been in a situation with a female student where he attempted to establish romantic sexual relationships with her, despite her efforts to discourage it. However, as evidenced in table 2, professors actually reported having engaged in behaviours commonly considered to be highly sexually harassing, such as using academic-related bribes for sexual cooperation. Although the proportion of respondents who professed to having engaged in sexual harassment behaviours—

especially those of higher severity level—was relatively low (1%–3%), there still exists a substantial number of professors who were involved in behaviours commonly regarded as unethical and strictly forbidden. To illustrate, even an item that was affirmatively responded to by only two respondents (such as items 11 and 16 in table 2) who equal 3.5% of the sample, this may actually represent over 30 full-time, male professors who have behaved this way at least once in the last two years.

Table 2 Frequency Distribution of Admitted Sexually Harassing Sampled Behaviours

TSBS Item # and Type	During the past 24 months have you ever been in a situation with a female student where you...	*n*	%	*n* of Actual Profs[a]
3 GH	Made sexual remarks, either publicly (e.g., in the office/classroom), or to her privately?	4	7.1	69 ± 2
7 GH	Frequently made sexist remarks (e.g., suggesting that women are too emotional to be scientists or to assume leadership roles)?	5	8.8	86 ± 3
5 USA	Gave her sexual attention (e.g., looking at her breasts; using suggestive gestures)?	7	12.3	120 ± 4
13 USA	Touched her (e.g., laid a hand on her bare arm, put an arm around her shoulders) in a way that could make her feel uncomfortable?	7	12.3	120 ± 4
11 SC	Made attempts to bribe her (subtly or directly) with some sort of reward or special treatment to engage in sexual behaviour?	2	3.5	34 ± 1
16 SC	Implied faster promotions or better treatment if she would be sexually cooperative?	2	3.5	34 ± 1

Note: TSBS = Teacher-Student Behaviour Survey
GH = Gender Harassment Type
USA = Unwanted Sexual Attention Type
SC = Sexual Coercion Type
a = Based on confidence level of 95%, and a population size of 970.

In order to test the possible relationship between marital status and sexual harassment behaviours, the respondents were divided into two groups of either singles or non-singles. Although there was a visible trend of more sexual harassment behaviours having been committed by non-singles than singles, a series of *t*-tests revealed that for scores on all three sexual harassment variables the differences between these two groups were not statistically significant.

Table 3 displays the relationships between the continuous personal variables (age, AWS, APS, and SOS) and the three sexual harassment scores. The results show that age was not found to be related to any of the sexual harassment scores. However, the three personality factor variables showed significant correlations. The AWS correlated -0.52 and -0.54 (both p's < .01) with the sexual harassment behaviour score and objectively weighted sexual harassment score, respectively. These correlations indicate that the more liberal the individual's perceptions of women's rights and roles are, the less likely he is to actually engage in sexual harassment behaviours. The APS correlated 0.39 and 0.41 (both p's < .01) with these same two sexual harassment scores, respectively, meaning that the more authoritarian men are, the more likely it is that they will commit sexual harassment behaviours. The SOS correlated 0.40 and 0.38 (both p's < .01) with the two sexual harassment scores, respectively, implying that the more erotophilic a professor is, the greater potential exists that he would commit sexual harassment behaviours.

Table 3 Correlations Between Personal Characteristics and Sexual Harassment

	Admitted Sexual Harassment		
	Behaviour Score	**Objectively Weighted Score**	**Subjectively Weighted Score**
Age	-0.10	-0.13	0.00
AWS	-0.52 **	-0.54 **	-0.18
APS	0.39 **	0.41 **	0.10
SOS	0.40 **	0.38 **	0.35 *

Note: n's = 40–54
AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale
APS = Authoritarian Personality Scale
SOS = Sexual Opinion Survey
* = $p < .05$
** = $p < .01$

Of the three psychological variables, only the SOS correlated with the subjectively weighted sexual-harassment score ($r = 0.35$; $p < .05$). This finding implies that professors' own subjectively perceived sexual harassment is unrelated to their attitudes toward women or authoritarian personality, but possibly related to their approach motivation toward sexuality.

Table 4 summarizes stepwise regression analyses computed in trying to examine the multiple relationships between the three personality variables and each of the three sexual harassment scores. The results of the first two regression analyses are almost identical. In other words, AWS entered the equation first, SOS second, and APS third, each having a significant contribution to the multiple correlation. The multiple correlations found for the sexual-harassment behaviour score and for the objectively weighted sexual-harassment score were identical at 0.72

($F = 14.1$; $p < .01$), thereby explaining 52% of the criterion variance. However, the multiple correlation with the subjectively weighted sexual harassment score ($R = 0.42$) was found to be insignificant, and only the SOS, as mentioned above, significantly entered the regression equation.

Table 4 Multiple Regressions of the Personality Variables on Sexual Harassment

	Simple *r*	*R*	R^2	*F*
Behaviour Score				
AWS	-0.52 **	0.52	0.27	15.5 **
SOS	0.40 **	0.68	0.46	17.2 **
APS	0.39 **	0.72	0.52	14.1 **
Objective Weight				
AWS	-0.54 **	0.54	0.29	16.6 **
SOS	0.38 **	0.68	0.46	17.0 **
APS	0.41 **	0.72	0.52	14.1 **
Subjective Weight				
SOS	0.35 *	0.35	0.12	5.1 *
APS	0.10	0.41	0.17	3.8 *
AWS	-0.18	0.42	0.17	2.5

Note: AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale
APS = Authoritarian Personality Scale
SOS = Sexual Opinion Survey
* = $p < .05$
** = $p < .01$

Discussion

The results of the current investigation provided strong evidence to support the hypothesis that professors who held more conservative (or traditional) attitudes towards women, who had a higher level of authoritarian personality, and who held more positive attitudes toward sexuality were more likely to sexually harass female students (as evidenced by their own admissions). Simultaneously, it was found that personal biographic variables such as age and marital status were unrelated to sexual harassment behaviours. This latter finding is consistent with Fitzgerald, Weitzman, et al. (1988) in their survey of university professors, as well as with numerous investigations based on self-reports of female students. (Fitzgerald, Shullman et al. 1988)

The reported extent and prevalence of sexually harassing behaviours generally concurs with surveys of female students in which they reported their experiences of sexual harassment by male professors. (Barak, Fisher, and Houston 1992; Fitzgerald, Shullman, et al. 1988) In addition, reports on the prevalence of sexual harassment are consistent with the only other published study that surveyed professors. (Fitzgerald, Weitzman et al. 1988) Although there is no possible way to compare the results from research using self-reports of female students with the findings of this study based on self-reports of male professors, it seems that several characteristics and indications of the extent of sexual harassment are very similar. It is proposed that the data provided by the current research participants should be considered to be *conservative estimates* of the actual prevalence of sexual harassment on campus (because professors' self-reports were used). However, it was shown that more than 20% of the professors surveyed in this study engaged in one or more forms of sexual harassment with a female student at least once during the last two years. Since each professor is associated with numerous students, we can understand why 60% to 80% of female students, as shown across universities and countries (Barak, in press), have reported encountering at least one form of sexual harassment by a male university professor during the course of their academic studies.

The results of the present study provide much support to theoretical models that attempt to explain sexual harassment behaviours in relation to men's personality factors. (Pryor, LaVite, and Stoller 1993) Since the relationship between personality factor and sexual harassment behaviours is recognized, and since it could be assumed that these attitudes are acquired through psychological development, the present results also provide support to parts of socio-cultural (Tangri, Burt, and Johnson 1982) and feminist (Hoffman 1986) theories that refer to developmental and educational factors in the determination of sexual harassment. Although the findings of this study cannot refute situational or environmental effects in the development of sexual harassment, it was found that a predominant portion (over 50%) of the sexual harassment behaviour variance is related to personality factors, thus leaving a smaller portion of the variance to be potentially explained by situational determinants (assuming that some of the variance is erroneous in principle). This conclusion is consistent with recent studies (Barak, Pitterman, and Yitzhaki 1995; Bargh, et al. 1995; Pryor and Stoller 1994) that highlighted the role of personality-related, rather than environmentally-related, processes in determining men's sexual harassment behaviour. Although the current study concentrates on three rather specific personality factors, which are consistent with relevant theory and research, this does not suggest that they are the sole or even primary men's personality variables that are related to actual sexual harassment behaviours. However, in contrast to the assertion made by Koss et al. (1994) that "there is no typical harasser" (p. 148), the current findings suggest that *while indeed there may not be a typical sexual harasser in terms of demographic factors, harassers might have common denominators in terms of certain personality characteristics.*

While the present findings provide support for a relationship between certain personality characteristics and sexual harassment behaviours, the causal nature of these relationships, if any exists, is still unknown.

If the general hypothesis proves valid in additional research, this could provide support for counselling and psycho-educational interventions as a valuable approach with which to combat sexual harassment. (Barak 1991, 1994) These potentially proactive interventions should focus on changing and modifying men's attitudes and beliefs and, in turn, decreasing their sexually harassing behaviours. However, considerable progress has yet to be made in building a stronger foundation to support this argument, in developing efficient interventions and, perhaps the greatest challenge of all, in convincing men to consent and commit to re-educating themselves.

The present research has several weaknesses that limit the validity of its conclusions. First, the study was conducted in a single Canadian campus, and different cultures and environments may generate different results. Second, the relatively low response rate might have caused a distorted sample, in which case the target population would not have been accurately represented. Although 30% to 40% response rates are very common in social scientific research, especially in anonymous mail surveys, only (or primarily) those professors characterized by specific personality factors may have responded to the questionnaires, thus distorting the findings. However, according to examinations performed on the data, it appears that the sample is indeed representative of the target population and that any possible distortion due to non-response is highly unlikely. Third, and related to the previous point, the final sample is relatively small for statistical analyses to yield stable and repeatable results, especially regression analyses. Consequently, the suggestion is not to refer to the magnitude of the correlation and regression coefficients, but to *their nature* and to their direction or quality. Fourth, the results of this study relied entirely on the integrity of the respondents, since all the data were produced by their self-reported responses, leaving no possible means by which to verify the reliability of these responses. However, as a single study in the area of sexual harassment, testing scholars' conventionally held arguments, it seems that the current investigation was able to provide initial empirical support for the notion that certain personality variables of men are responsible for (or related to) their sexual harassment behaviours.

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Socio-political ideology and career counselling

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Introduction

The theoretical basis of professional career-guidance practice has been dominated by psychologists. Particularly in the United States of America, but in most other countries as well, the dominant guidance theories—and the theories of career development on which they have been based—have been psychological rather than sociological, or economic in nature. This is perhaps understandable, since at the point of intervention the focus of attention is the individual. But it means that the social context of the intervention, and the socio-political nature of the intervention itself, tend to be neglected and implicitly regarded as unproblematic.

Career guidance is, however, a profoundly political process. It operates at the interface between the individual and society, between self and opportunity, between aspiration and realism. It facilitates the allocation of life-chances. Where life-chances are unequally distributed, it faces the issue of whether it serves to reinforce such inequalities or to reduce them.

The origins of the vocational-guidance movement can be found in a process of gradualist social reform, seeking to improve the work conditions of the lower classes. (Brewer 1942) Such reform was designed to restructure society so that "the human potentialities of all members may be more fully utilised in the interest of each and in the interest of all." (Williamson 1965 p. 43) It was set within a democratic ideal that respected the rights of individuals to make free choices about their own lives, sanctioning "neither the exploitation of the individual by society, nor the disregard of the interests of society by the individual." (quoted in Stephens 1970, p.112).

But although guidance can be a form of social reform, it can also be a form of social control. There are important choices to be made. My aim in this paper is to clarify the nature of these choices. I will offer four alternative approaches to career guidance from a socio-political perspective. I will then elaborate on these approaches, first in relation to the challenge posed by unemployment, second in relation to the issue of gender, and third in relation to the issue of ethnicity.

Four approaches

Most writers on guidance have tended to view it in *liberal* terms as a *non-directive* process concerned with helping individuals to choose the opportunities appropriate not only to their abilities and skills but also to their interests and values. This approach has been strongly influenced by the models of non-directive counselling developed by Carl Rogers (1961): while it recognizes the desirability of a wider range of interventions, it holds to the ideal of respecting and valuing the right of individuals to make decisions concerning their own lives. Guidance is seen as *facilitating* this process, not influencing it in a particular direction. (Daws 1967) Career education, for example, is viewed as an appropriate complement to counselling, helping individuals to develop the skills, knowledge, and understanding they need in order to make their own informed decisions. (Watts 1973)

Such views tend to be criticized by sociologists, who commonly view guidance as an essentially *conservative* force, operating as an agent of *social control*. Its main function is seen as adapting individuals to the opportunities appropriate for them. (Roberts 1977) According to this view, its primary concern is to meet the needs of the labour market. It is noted, for example, that career counsellors act as "gatekeepers" to opportunities. (Erickson 1975; Wrench 1991) It is also noted that one of the main functions of guidance is to discourage students from seeking opportunities regarded as "unrealistic" and to lower their expectations. Guidance is seen as an effective if insidious means of "cooling out" excessive aspirations. (Clark 1960) It masks inequalities in society by making them seem matters of individual choice, thereby reconciling people to their roles. In doing so, it propagates myths, such as the "dignity of work" and indeed the concept of "choice" itself. (Sessions 1975; also Grubb and Lazerson 1975)

Such comments, it should be noted, refer to the *functions* of guidance rather than to *conscious intentionality*. The comments tend to be made by brief visitors to the field, who are concerned with pointing out the gulf between its liberal rhetoric and what they see as being its conservative reality. At the same time, the reality they describe does have some direct congruence with policymakers who view guidance as being concerned primarily with serving the needs of the labour market, and with guidance writers and practitioners who emphasize "realism."

To counter the sociological critique of the liberal position, some guidance writers have adopted a more *progressive* stance, viewing guidance as a means of *individual change*. The emphasis shifts to a proactive approach, seeking in particular to raise the aspirations of individuals from deprived backgrounds. This incorporates attention to using active rolemodels so as to increase expectations, to forms of coaching and assertiveness training so as to improve self-confidence, and to forms of advocacy designed to remove obstacles to the individual's progress. The assumption tends to be that the individual's interests are best met by seeking to achieve the highest level that is possible within the status hierarchy of the opportunity structure. The conflict of identity and loyalty that, for example, young people from working-class backgrounds may experience in moving into middle-class roles (Jackson and Marsden 1962) are regarded as difficulties to be overcome rather than as legitimate objections to seeking advancement.

The progressive approach is open to the criticism that encouraging some degree of movement of individuals within the status hierarchy merely reinforces the hierarchy itself, with no benefits for those who remain at the lower levels within it. Some have accordingly argued that guidance should seek to adopt a more radical stance, concerned with promoting social change. The basic assumption here is that it is not possible to advance the interests of certain groups of individuals without some change in social structures. This might materialize in guidance practice as a more generalized advocacy role on behalf of groups of individuals (Ranson and Ribbins 1988), or as a feedback role that seeks to change the opportunity structure in the interests of such groups. (Oakeshott 1990)

More radically still, it might involve seeking to help such individuals to view their situation in group rather than individual terms: enabling them to understand, for example, the unequal and exploitative nature of the employment system. Such an approach has drawn sustenance from the work of Willis (1977) with working-class boys, showing how personal choices are bounded by norms and perceptions linked to shared identity. This has been interpreted by some as implying the need for interventions to engage with the group culture and develop its socio-political consciousness. Thus some career teachers in London schools in the early 1980s were reported as indicating that they were not disposed to cooperate with any "tinkering" efforts to improve individual prospects, but that their concern was rather to "conscientise" young people. (*New Society* 14 May 1981)

A broadly similar position was elaborated in the United Kingdom within the Schools Council Careers Education and Guidance Project:

> Society and the range of job and other opportunities were regarded as more incompatible than compatible with the goal of encouraging the development and expression of human potential. This led to an emphasis on stimulating pupils to assess critically society and the occupational roles available and to act as an influence for social change, particularly in the world of work. (Bates 1990, p. 71)

Bates, however, describes how teachers tended to ignore the different political nuances evident in the project publications and to regard them in a pragmatic and politically uncritical way as a source of lesson materials that could lift career education out of its job-information rut. She further notes how even this was modified by pressure from pupils to revert to the traditional job-information approach. This provides a valuable reminder of how even sharply defined ideological stances can become modified by the practical constraints of the context in which they are implemented and by the negotiation with clients that effective guidance arguably requires.

The four approaches I have identified can be arranged on two dimensions, according to whether their core focus is on society or on the individual, and according to whether their concern in each case is with accepting the status quo or changing it in prescribed directions. This is illustrated in figure 1, with the former dimension represented vertically and the latter one horizontally.

Figure 1 Four Socio-Political Approaches to Careers Education and Guidance

	Core focus on society	**Core focus on individual**
Change	radical (social change)	progressive (individual change)
Status quo	conservative (social control)	liberal (non-directive)

Source: Adapted from Watts and Herr (1976)

It is worth noting that there is also some lateral correspondence within the diagram. Thus, both the conservative and progressive models tend to assume what Katz (1993) terms a "single optimisation model" for meeting both societal and individual interests: the notion that opportunities are arranged in a single hierarchy, and that the issue is who "wins" or "loses" particular places within this hierarchy. The liberal and radical approaches, by contrast, question in different forms the dominance of this hierarchy: the liberal approach by arguing that differences in values mean that individuals can "win" in different ways; the radical approach by questioning the "game" itself.

The extent to which it is feasible and/or legitimate for guidance to adopt a *fully-fledged* social-change approach is open to question. Certainly it is likely to attract political opposition, as when a minister of State for Employment in the United Kingdom accused career officers of being "social engineers…incapable or unwilling to help employers by encouraging young people to take up opportunities on offer." (Morrison 1983) More fundamentally, it can be argued that there is an intrinsic incompatibility between the personalist orientation of counselling (in its various forms) and political activism. Halmos (1974), for example, contended that any attempt to develop some kind of "hybrid" of the roles was a serious mistake. He further argued that the radical critique of counselling was misconceived: "no social system, least of all the favoured utopias, can come about and subsist without a generously staffed personal service to individuals." (p. 147)

This leaves open, however, the issue of whether some *elements* of the social-change approach might be necessary to achieve the personal emancipation valued by the liberal approach. I will explore this issue later.

The challenge of unemployment

Of the four approaches I have outlined, the liberal and progressive approaches tend to be dominant in most career-guidance practice at the level of conscious intentionality. This is mainly because they focus on the individual, which—as I noted earlier—is the natural focus of attention at the point of guidance intervention. When opportunities are relatively plentiful and/or expanding, this dominance is more likely to be uncontested. When, however, opportunities contract, it tends to come under growing pressure. This is particularly the case when levels of unemployment rise, for unemployment calls into question the concepts of "opportunities" and "choice" on which the liberal and progressive approaches are essentially based. Responses to unemployment thus provide a particularly fruitful area in which to explore the impact of different socio-political ideologies on educational provision in general, and on guidance practice in particular. (Watts 1978; Fleming and Lavercombe 1982; Watts 1983; Watts and Knasel 1985)

The most common immediate response of guidance services to rising unemployment is to pay more attention to active ways of helping their clients to secure the opportunities that remain available. In particular, there tends to be increased focus on *employability*. This includes job-search skills, and skills of self-presentation on paper and in selection interviews. It also includes exploration of possibilities for education and training that may increase employability. Eventually, however, guidance services have to confront the fact that while guidance along these lines may be helpful and effective for some of the individuals concerned, it does little or nothing to increase the number of jobs, and that many clients may remain unemployed. In such cases, guidance programmes limited to employability may only increase the stress and sense of inadequacy that stem from repeated failure, making it seem that this failure is due to personal inadequacy.

Attention may accordingly extend to focus on *coping*. This may include helping people to claim the benefits to which they are entitled, and to survive on a limited budget. It may also include helping them to explore opportunities for making good use of their increased "leisure" time—hobbies, voluntary work, skill exchanges, and non-vocational educational opportunities—and helping them to cope in mental-health terms. Excessive focus on coping is however open to attack on the grounds that it is encouraging people to tolerate the intolerable, particularly in a society in which employment remains the chief source of status, of social identity, and of income.

A further extension therefore focuses on *opportunity creation*. This involves helping people to explore possibilities for becoming self-employed or setting up a small business or cooperative. The rise of unemployment in the United Kingdom in the early 1980s indeed saw a huge growth of attention to such possibilities, linked to the "education for enterprise" movement. (Watts and Moran 1984) Again, however, too much focus on encouraging people to be "enterprising" in this sense could imply that this represents a societal solution to unemployment, and that people who do not take up this option are feckless; this could be aligned to political arguments for reducing or withdrawing their benefits, so again becoming a classic case of "blaming the victim."

In each of these cases, therefore, options that appear liberal-progressive in nature are open to attack on the grounds that they are hidden forms of social control. This is reflected clearly in the attitude taken to hidden-economy activity. For many unemployed people, activities within the hidden economy are important forms both of coping and of opportunity creation. Because, however, they are officially proscribed, they tend to be ignored in guidance programmes. (Watts 1981)

Some career counsellors and teachers find it acutely uncomfortable to accept the social-control nature of their work. They are aware that their efforts to help people with their individual problems fail to address the social context from which these problems largely stem. Moreover, they may begin to feel that they are helping to reinforce the social context by shifting attention away from it: by suggesting that what is needed is not socio-political reform but ways of making good the inadequacies of individuals.

In response to this, they may seek to focus also on the *context* itself. This may involve helping people to understand the extent to which responsibility for unemployment lies at a societal rather than individual level, and to explore possible forms of social, political, and community action in response to it. This may be justified in liberal-progressive terms: that if unemployed people understand that unemployment is not due to personal inadequacy, this may make it easier to avoid the destructive effect that unemployment may have on their confidence and self-respect. But it may also be justified in more radical terms, as raising people's consciousness of the social causes of unemployment and helping them to work collectively for social change. This, too, however, is open to objections: increased awareness of the size and complexity of the forces that cause unemployment could lead unemployed people to feel a sense of impotence in the face of these forces; this in turn could lead to a fatalism that not only reduces their personal chances of finding a job but also produces a more general sense of alienation and disenchantment; it is likely to attract opposition from the public authorities on whose support most guidance provision depends; and it places the unemployed in the forefront of political pressures for change, which may expose them to risk and may mean that excessive expectations are raised for a group whose power is relatively limited.

In the end, resolving these dilemmas is a question of finding the optimal balance between the different options that is appropriate to the particular guidance context in question. To focus exclusively on any one option poses considerable ethical and professional difficulties. But an appropriate balance between them may make it possible to avoid or at least minimize such difficulties. In this sense, the difficulties tend to be more acute in career-education programmes than in, for example, the counselling interview, where the balance between the various options can be more flexibly negotiated with the individual client. On the other hand, socio-political context issues tend to be difficult to address in one-to-one counselling sessions and may be easier to tackle in group situations. For my present purposes, however, the various guidance options available in response to the challenge of unemployment illustrate very clearly the socio-political dilemmas that lie beneath all guidance provision.

Gender issues

Issues of socio-political ideology also arise in relation to gender. Here they assume a particularly acute form because of the fixed nature of gender allocation: whereas people can move between social classes, they do not normally do so (except in the extreme case of transsexuals) between genders. Since gender segregation in the labour market is still strong, with many women confined to relatively low-paid and low-status jobs (Martin and Roberts 1984; Rees 1992), guidance is faced with the question of whether it serves to reinforce or challenge such segregation.

Traditionally, guidance clearly tended to reinforce the segregation. Until the mid-1970s, the Youth Employment Service (as it then was) in the United Kingdom had separate sections for boys and girls, with distinct staff, records, and job-vacancy lists. Career literature referred to "girls' jobs" and "boys' jobs." Pictures in such literature tended to show men at work doing positive and demanding tasks, whereas women were shown in supportive roles as secretaries, in caring roles as nurses, or in decorative roles as florists and hairdressers. Child-rearing and home-making were assumed to play central roles in women's careers but not in men's. (Prout 1983)

These practices and assumptions have been strongly challenged by the feminist movement and changes in social mores. The more overtly segregated practices were abandoned, and explicit stereotyping is now scrutinized much more critically. Nonetheless, there is some evidence that in practice guidance services still tend to perform a conservative, social-control function in relation to gender issues. Several studies have shown, for example, that career counsellors and teachers have been perceived as offering little help, and often positive discouragement, to girls who want to choose gender-atypical occupations. (Benett and Carter 1982; Breakwell and Weinberger 1987; Cockburn 1987; Devine 1993)

This is not how most career counsellors perceive themselves. Their stance is often liberal in nature. Most claim to be following equal-opportunities policies, at least in a passive sense. But their adherence to a non-directive approach means that they are inclined to take their clients' interests and preferences at face value. They are concerned about whether it is ethically legitimate for them to seek "to reshape youngsters' aspirations and views of themselves." (Gottfredson 1981, p. 577) They are also anxious to avoid rejection or ridicule from their clients. (Cockburn 1987) They accordingly may be reluctant to present gender-atypical options to those who do not volunteer an interest in such options. On the other hand, they may feel that with those who do indicate an interest in gender-atypical options, they should ensure that the individuals concerned are aware of the difficulties involved. (Breakwell and Weinberger 1987) This is easily perceived by such individuals as discouragement. In such ways, the liberal stance of career counsellors can serve conservative ends.

There has therefore been pressure to adopt a more progressive approach, based on more active equal-opportunities policies. (Watts and Kant 1986) This includes active ways of increasing awareness of gender-atypical options. A particularly common approach is the use of positive role models, through talks, group discussions, or shadowing schemes. Attention may also be given to providing support to those who want to pursue gender-atypical options, helping them to confront discrimination. Sometimes such programmes include work in single-sex groups, where issues specific to the gender in question can be addressed more directly. This runs the risk of reintroducing segregation and reinforcing gender stereotypes.

There is some evidence that progressive programmes of these kinds have only limited success in terms of direct impact on immediate choices. (Brooks, Holahan, and Galligan 1985; Sultana 1990; HMI 1982) This demonstrates the strength and persistence of gender stereotypes. Gottfredson's (1981) theory of career development emphasizes that sex-role conceptions are fundamental to people's sense of personal identity and that this produces strong resistance to relinquishing sex-type perceptions in choosing an occupation. It seems likely that such resistance will be particularly strong during adolescence, when young people are still developing their sexual identity and beginning their sexual careers. Such concerns seem to pose even greater problems for boys than for girls in choosing gender-atypical options for their occupational careers: such choices are viewed as irrational in selecting lower-status and lower-paid "feminine" occupations, and tend therefore to be regarded as casting doubts on the individual's sexual identity. (Hayes 1986) Yet, arguably, the movement of males into "feminine" occupations is critical if females are to be able to move more easily into "masculine" occupations.

A common progressive response to these difficulties in relation to career-education programmes in schools is to seek to start them much earlier, before gender stereotypes are rigidly formed. Indeed, this forms one of the chief arguments for beginning career-education programmes in primary schools, in advance of puberty. A second response is to argue that such programmes need to be broader in approach, incorporating attention to domestic and child-rearing roles as well as occupational roles. (Van Dyke 1981) This enables the interaction between such roles to be addressed, and the gender distribution of work in the home as well as in employment to be brought into question.

Such responses can be incorporated within a liberal-progressive approach, but some writers have suggested that a more radical stance needs to be taken. It is argued that the concept of equal opportunities is not adequate as a framework for countering gender discrimination and women's disadvantage: that instead an anti-sexist approach is required, based on challenging patriarchal power bases. (Weiner 1985) Attempts have been made to develop curriculum units based on anti-sexist principles designed to influence occupational choice by developing a broader critical consciousness of gender divisions and stereotyping. (Chisholm and Holland 1986; Blackman 1987) Other writers, by contrast, have attached importance to such critical consciousness as an end in its own right. They argue that career counsellors and teachers should not try to force young women into non-traditional jobs where they will be detached from the support of other women: instead the aim should be to develop the students' understanding of *why* their choices are so limited. (Griffin 1985)

Beneath these different approaches, two key issues can be identified. The first is whether it is the responsibility of guidance to represent the world of work as it is, or as it might be. The conservative and liberal approaches tend to be concerned with presenting the world as it is, with its existing inequalities and discrimination. Thus the fact that certain occupations are sex-segregated is regarded as valid occupational information. The progressive approach, on the other hand, tends to place more emphasis on the world as it might be from the individual's perspective, attaching particular importance to positive images and role models. Thus significance is attached to representing occupations non-stereotypically or even counter-stereotypically, so that a male-dominated occupation is represented visually by equal numbers of men and women. This makes it easier for girls to see the occupation as accessible to them, even though it misrepresents the current reality (Birk, Tanney, and Cooper 1979) and pays no attention to the structural changes required to achieve change. The radical approach, by contrast, sees it as important to address the current reality but to expose its structural foundations to radical critique.

The second issue is the balance between the approaches that is most likely to encourage individual autonomy. Such autonomy requires individuals to be able to envisage a range of possible selves in possible futures and to transcend the prescriptions of their situation and their socialized self. (Law 1981) It is important to recognize that the test of such autonomy must include the possibility of choosing conventional as well as non-conventional options, but choosing them as an act of informed volition rather than as a result of conditioning. The danger with the progressive and radical approaches is that they tend implicitly to devalue traditionally feminine occupations, and the traditionally feminine roles of home-making and child-rearing, and to impose on women a male definition of career achievement. (Hashizume and Crozier 1994) On the other hand, it is arguable that the critical understanding of traditionally feminine roles developed by such approaches, and the awareness of alternatives, are essential if these roles are to be assumed as a matter of genuine choice. In other words, some elements of the progressive and radical approaches are necessary to detach liberal approaches from their conservative tendencies, but in the end the progressive and radical approaches have to be reconciled with the liberal one if individual autonomy is to be affirmed.

Ethnicity issues

Ethnicity is a particularly socio-political issue for the "visible ethnic minorities," that is, people "likely to be discriminated against on the basis of colour". (Forbes and Mead 1992, p. 1) By 1989 such people constituted about 4.7% of the total population of Britain. Most are systematically disadvantaged in the labour market, although the nature and degree of such disadvantage varies according to the country of origin. (Forbes and Mead 1992) As with gender, ethnic identity is in principle immutable; but in contrast to gender disadvantage, ethnic disadvantage applies to whole families and communities. This, along with the fact that some ethnic groups arrived in Britain only relatively recently, means that they may have only limited quantities of relevant "cultural capital" (Bourdieu and Passeron 1977) on which to draw. Accordingly, they may need more active support in order to secure access to opportunities.

One of the results is that black youngsters of Afro-Caribbean or Asian descent tend to be much more dependent on formal guidance services than do white youngsters. They are less likely to be able to get from their family or friends the informed help they need in order to gain access to opportunities. They are accordingly more likely to have recourse to career counsellors or teachers. (Brooks and Singh 1978; Lee and Wrench 1983; Sillitoe and Meltzer 1985; Verma and Darby 1987)

In response to such demands, some career counsellors and teachers adopt the liberal "colour-blind" stance that "we treat them all the same." Such a stance tends to deny the existence of systematic discrimination against ethnic minorities within the labour market, and to attribute any lack of success on the part of these minorities to their cultural attributes. (Cross, Wrench, and Barnett 1990) There appears to be little if any evidence of overt ethnic discrimination on the part of guidance services. (Roberts, Duggan, and Noble 1981) Nonetheless, there is evidence that career advisers tend to assess the occupational aspirations of ethnic-minority young people less favourably than those of white young people with similar qualifications, and to be more likely to regard such aspirations as unrealistic. Moreover, they are inclined to engage in "protective channelling," directing ethnic-minority young people away from opportunities where they suspect these youngsters will be rejected. (Cross, Wrench, and Barnett 1990) This means that discrimination on the part of employers is not even tested, let alone challenged. In such ways, career counsellors operating within a liberal framework that rejects racism nonetheless can help to produce racist outcomes. Concepts like "realism" act to conceal the underlying racism. Indeed, Brown (1985) argues that such "racist non-racism" is able to hold the racist model together precisely because it represents itself as an individualistic, meritocratic, and informal set of practices based on common sense.

In response to such critiques, one or more of three rather different positions seem to be adopted. The first is a reformed liberal approach based on pluralistic *multicultural* principles. This seeks to pay more attention to understanding and accepting the cultural background of ethnic-minority groups. It may include acceptance of cultural factors that constrain the range of opportunities. It might also however include training for careers advisers in avoiding cultural stereotypes, and strategies for recruiting career advisers from ethnic-minority groups.

The second is a progressive approach based on active *assimilation*. This may include providing compensatory teaching for ethnic-minority groups in employability skills and/or knowledge of the labour market. It may also include providing access to positive role models, and extending the range of informal networks to which ethnic-minority individuals have access. (Watts and Law 1985)

The third is a more radical approach based on *anti-racist* principles. This seeks to develop a stronger critical understanding of the power relations underlying racism. It might include "racism-awareness training" for career advisers, seeking to help them to confront their own latent racism, though this has sometimes alienated career staff and been counter-productive in its effects. "Anti-racist training," aimed more at organizational strategies for combating racism, has been suggested as being more fruitful in practical terms. This might include strategies for combating racist recruitment practices on the part of employers. (Cross, Wrench, and Barnett 1990) At the level of guidance interventions, strategies might include examining within career-education programmes socio-political issues related to the opportunities open to ethnic minorities, and preparing ethnic-minority individuals to confront discrimination and racism. (Watts and Law 1985)

As in the case of gender, the choice of strategies in relation to ethnicity has to wrestle with complex issues related to identity as well as social context. This is particularly the case when there are tensions between the attitudes and behaviours valued within the ethnic-minority subculture, and those required to achieve success within the white-dominated labour market. Liberal approaches tend to attach more importance to what is valued within the subculture, and progressive approaches to what is demanded in the labour market; attempts may be made to reconcile these by seeking to help ethnic-minority groups to become effectively bicultural. Radical approaches, by contrast, seek to address the tensions themselves within a broader critical analysis.

Conclusion

During most of this paper, I have presented the four different approaches to career education and guidance as alternatives. In these terms, each is vulnerable to attack.

The *conservative* approach, focused on social control, accepts and seeks to reinforce the social status quo. It thereby conserves existing inequalities, which constrain opportunities for many individuals.

The *liberal* approach is in practice closely aligned with the conservative one. It tends to regret any inequalities, but its non-directive character means that it avoids confronting them.

The *progressive* approach, focused on individual change, seeks to alter the distribution of opportunities but not the opportunity structure itself. It therefore accepts the social status quo in a more direct way than the liberal approach does. On the other hand, it in some respects places more pressure on the opportunity structure by raising expectations that this structure may be unable to meet. This is a familiar feature of the "diploma disease" (Dore 1976): expectations of vocational advancement lead more individuals to apply for higher levels of education; this leads to an expansion of educational opportunities at a rate that exceeds the pace of change in the skill-mix of the economy; the result is frustration of the very vocational aspirations that have set the process in motion. This is likely to increase individual discontent: the *objective* degree of social inequality needs to be distinguished from the *felt* inequality, which is experienced only in relation to the reference groups with which those at the lower levels of the hierarchy compare themselves; the effect of raising aspirations is to extend these reference groups, thus increasing the sense of relative deprivation. (Runciman 1966) Moreover, because the progressive approach focuses on the individual without questioning the social context, the individual is left carrying the full weight of the deprivation.

The *radical* approach addresses the social causes of inequality and seeks to remedy them through social change. In its more extreme forms, it is prepared to increase individuals' sense of relative deprivation and alienation, on the grounds that this is necessary in order to achieve the level of social consciousness that will stimulate change. In this sense, it may be prepared to sacrifice immediate individual satisfaction in the interests of possible future social reform. This can be aligned to a dogmatism that views alternative viewpoints as "false consciousness." It also tends to be utopian in nature: if such utopias turn out to be chimerical, the individual sacrifice it has demanded will be in vain.

Such arguments are however based on narrow extrapolation to *reductio ad absurdum* extremes. In reality, no guidance intervention is likely to be sufficiently powerful to achieve the effects I have outlined. Moreover, most guidance interventions are likely to contain some mix of the approaches, particularly if they are to involve some negotiation with clients. Indeed, the argument developed earlier in relation to gender can be applied more broadly: elements of the progressive and radical approaches can help to rescue liberal approaches from their conservative inclinations, particularly for individuals and groups whose immediate access to genuine choices is limited; but in the end they need to be reconciled with the liberal approach if the autonomy of the individual is to be respected and supported. The appropriate mix is likely, however, to vary in different situations and with different clients. The professional task of the guidance practitioner is to identify what is morally and pragmatically appropriate in particular contexts.

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Students and the Information Age: Which skills? What jobs?

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Introduction

We are bombarded daily by media hyperbole about the Information Age, the need for computer literacy, the global economy, the deficit, unemployment, educational reform, and the possible connections between all of these. Until very recently, an optimistic view of the Information Age, driven by government reports (Premier's Council 1990; Whetzel 1990) has pervaded the media, but in the last few months a growing socio-economic critique has increasingly coloured media commentaries.

Against this background of contested information, we struggle to give the best possible advice to youth faced with making decisions about the critical school-to-work transition in an uncertain and changing world. This paper draws attention to the need to create new and more accurate information about current and future job opportunities and related educational qualifications. In order to do this, I will discuss three positions on school-to-work transitions: first, one that has dominated much of the literature and research in this area for two decades, that I like to call *everybody (and especially girls) into math, science, and technology*; second, *"expert" predictions about the Information Age*; and third, *the reality check*, or a critical evaluation of the evidence.

Everybody (and especially girls) into math, science, and technology (MST)

The belief underlying this first—and still active—perspective is that many (probably most) future jobs will be in the sciences, and that an insufficient number of students—especially girls and some minority groups—pursue these areas. In keeping with this perspective, I surveyed 150 northeastern Ontario high-school students making elective course decisions for Grade 11. Thirty-two of these students were subsequently selected for in-depth interviews. (Stratton 1994) I will use data from this study to illustrate the research focus of the first perspective, and later to compare the skills and jobs these students anticipated with expert views and actual Canadian employment distributions.

Table 1 provides an overview, by gender, of students' views about MST courses and the labour market. Most students expected there would be more jobs in MST areas than elsewhere. Most boys planned to make course selections in accordance with their labour-market expectations, but girls, despite parallel views of the future job market, were much less likely to favour MST courses over others. Similarly, both sexes expected more jobs in the physical sciences, but girls were less interested in them. During the interviews, students who identified MST as important for the labour market—but did not choose accordingly—explained these apparent contradictions. They acknowledged hearing that there would be more MST jobs, but offered three specific arguments for not pursuing MST pathways over others: (a) a variety of non-science jobs would still be needed; (b) it was no good aiming for a job you had no interest in; and (c) good language and social skills were necessary for virtually all jobs.

Table 1 Student Views About MST Courses and the Labour Market by Gender

Student Views	Male		Female	
	N	%	*N*	%
There will be more MST[1] jobs	89	90	59	91
Science is important to me	89	82	58	81
I think it is more important to take MST courses (than LSS[2])	91	82	59	59 *
I will choose more MST courses	89	84	59	63 *
There will be more physical-science (than life-science) jobs	90	62	59	56
I am more interested in physical sciences	72	61	35	23 **
Students' science-career aspirations[3]	209	16	146	33 *

Key: The table provides a percentage of views.
Percentage columns do not total 100 as students held multiple views.
*$p<.01$
**$p<.001$
1. MST = math, science, and technology
2. LSS = languages and social studies
3. Percent is calculated using total number of aspirations listed by all students, by gender

In keeping with the perception that MST were important, students did not rush to drop math and science courses, which received a proportion of course selections roughly equal to those in other curriculum areas. However, few actually favoured MST selections over other areas, and under 30% chose a science technology (such as computers or electronics), or even noted them as particularly important to take, suggesting they had not grasped the role such skills play in most contemporary jobs. Contrary to stereotypical expectations, girls actually chose more science courses and had more science-career aspirations than boys. Two factors accounted for this result: first, few male or female students aspired to courses or careers in the physical sciences, but life sciences attracted far more girls than boys. Second, many boys who indicated a preference for MST actually were interested in non-science trade occupations, which they associated with MST and even with physical-science subjects.

The students' career aspirations by major employment sector (as defined by the Canadian Classification Directory of Occupations (1989) are compared in table 2 with actual Canadian employment distribution in 1991 (discussed later). Twenty percent of boys and 35% of girls aspired to science careers, but girls much preferred life sciences (in fact, over any other career area), with only 5% of their aspirations being for physical-science careers.

In terms of the "everyone into science" perspective, these results seem positive, as they suggest that many girls are willing to pursue sciences, and that a competitive proportion of all students' course choices and career goals are awarded to MST areas. There is, however, need for caution. First, other research has demonstrated attrition of even elite students from science pathways as they progress through high-school and postsecondary education (Tilleczek 1993; Yager and Yager 1985), and the reasons for this remain unclear. Second, the actual career aspirations that students offered were limited in scope, mainly gender stereotypical, and frequently unrealistic. Few students clearly understood the academic qualifications required for their respective choices, and most were confused about how school subjects related to various occupations. Furthermore, we hear much about girls having low aspirations, but this was not the case here—rather, girls had unrealistic hopes, which might eventually lead them to make do with any job, due to poor planning. This is a different problem with low aspirations, and that needs to be recognized. Conversely, we hear little about boys' low-level aspirations, but for this group it was a potential problem, with many about to embark on career pathways likely to lead to few skills and unemployment.

In light of these problems, some of the assumptions underlying the belief that we need more students (especially girls) to pursue science seem controvertible. We need to ask if our stereotypical notions of male and female behaviour have coloured our interpretations of the facts and figures at our disposal. A fundamental question to pose is: *When we talk about science interest and persistence, what science, exactly, are we talking about, and which kinds of science jobs do we mean?* This question is pertinent to the subsequent consideration of expert predictions and actual Canadian employment distributions.

"Expert" predictions about the Information Age

How do the experts answer? What jobs will there be, and what qualifications will be needed to get them? For the purposes of this paper, "experts" are those we rely on to inform ourselves (economists, social scientists, those knowledgeable in career literature) and whose opinions are advanced through government reports and the everyday media.

It is important to recognize how we inform ourselves and evaluate the reliability of our sources, because the students I interviewed tended not to go directly to the expert sources mentioned. Instead, they relied on parents, friends, and teachers for information, depending whom they viewed as more knowledgeable than themselves. To the students, these were the most reliable experts, because they (to quote one student) "know what the real world is like." Apparently, if nothing else, students have learned to regard official sources as unreliable measures of the real world (of which school is not, in their opinion, a part)!

I have used government reports from Canada and the United States to provide an overview of the dominant "discourse" on what kind of job opportunities we can expect in the Information Age. (Canada Employment and Immigration Commission 1990; U.S. Department of Labor 1994; Whetzel 1990) Underlying the official position is the assumption that in all industrialized countries a major restructuring of the labour force must take place for three reasons: a world-wide impetus to a global economy; the rapid advancement of electronic technology into every aspect of our lives, especially the workplace; and demographic shifts in population distribution (the population is aging, so as "baby boomers" retire, today's youth will be in great—albeit delayed—demand, *providing* they have gained the appropriate technology skills). According to the Ontario Premier's Council Report (1990), the acquisition of pertinent skills is essential for both economic and personal survival in the 21st century. In keeping with this recommendation, the Royal Commission on Learning (1995) has categorized the attainment of computer literacy as a component of a basic curriculum necessary for successful high-school graduation. The distilled official message is, *If youth acquire the set of requisite skills, they will be in great demand in the new hi-tech work-world of the 21st century.*

But what skills are the experts talking about? The answer to this question is surprisingly hard to pin down. An electronic search showed that the literature constantly referred to a set of necessary skills, without saying precisely what was involved. The best description occurred in a U.S. report from the (promising sounding) Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. (Whetzel1990) According to this report, all entry-level jobs will require a set of "foundation" and "competency" skills. Foundation skills cover three domains: basic, thinking, and personal. Competencies are seen as resources in four skill areas: interpersonal, information, systems, and technology utilization. The exact attributes and abilities that would fulfil such requirements were not clearly described. To be as generous as possible to the experts, based on what we know about generally accepted developmental and educational milestones, we can (and are apparently expected to) make a few reasonable assumptions about what the set of foundation skills entails. *Basic* probably refers to the attainment of both language and numericalliteracy skills; *thinking* must mean the ability to process and critically evaluate information once it is made available; and *personal* foundation skills are, presumably, those needed to function in society in a socially acceptable and psychologically stable manner.

The precise "competencies" required are less apparent: Should students gain some basic competence in each area, or specialize in one of them? Given the emphasis most reports place on flexibility, it is probable that some skills in all areas are desirable. First, regarding interpersonal skills, official reports and other sources frequently point out that most Information Age jobs—even in electronic communications—require interpersonal communication skills. Furthermore, many jobs lie in the service sector (see table 2 below), which generally means they require interactive communications with others. It is also evident that some basic competency with "technology utilization" is desirable for any kind of employment at all. In fact, it is increasingly difficult to function in our daily lives without applying basic technology skills, such as using banking machines, voice mail, and information systems. Most businesses, regardless of sector, require such abilities, along with the ability to use a fax, word processor, and probably e-mail, at the very minimum.

What exactly is meant by competency in "information" and "systems" is less clear, but reports suggest that acquiring such skills requires access to a personal computer with Internet connections, for the purpose of conducting electronic information searches, and learning interactive computer systems operate. Opportunities to develop specializations in electronic areas are less likely to be available to students, however. Although many will not want or need to specialize, the creation and application of computer hardware and software are currently prosperous employment areas, and skills in establishing and maintaining various electronic systems are in great demand; but as far as I can ascertain, pursuing these directions in high school is virtually impossible.

The optimistic expert view that all will be well, if youth (and others) just acquire the right technological skills, is increasingly challenged by more critical expert opinions, now reflected in the news media. For example, the Canadian Council for Social Development (1995) advances a decidedly pessimistic view of the evolving labour market, suggesting (1) labour-market earnings have become increasingly polarized (a loss of middle-income jobs); (2) there are more temporary and part-time positions and longer periods of unemployment; and (3) there is a growing pool of unemployed, but frequently highly educated, young people. What, then, is the reality?

The reality check: A critical evaluation

A critical evaluation is a reality check in the sense that it involves interrogating both the information we receive and what we think we already know. It begins by identifying unanswered questions that arise from available information and other perspectives. Thus, prompted by the deficiencies of the two perspectives just discussed, I identified the following set of questions: How is employment actually distributed right now, and can these patterns really be expected to change substantially in the foreseeable future? If so, where and how will they change? How do current and/or predicted employment distributions compare to student expectations? What skills will students really need for these jobs? And, how does the reality compare to the beliefs, expectations, and counselling approaches we, as educators, career counsellors, and parents, currently hold?

In order to try to gain at least some rudimentary insight into these questions, I conducted preliminary analyses of 1991 census data using CCDO coding categories representing major employment sectors and career pathways. Table 2 compares Canadian job distribution with the distribution of student aspirations, by sector and gender. In addition, I examined the relationship between job distribution and education, and distribution across sectors by age. It is well established that higher education increases employability, but the assumptions about where these jobs occur and that they necessarily entail better pay and conditions, need to be examined. If, as the experts have suggested, the nature of work is changing, we would expect evidence to indicate some major distribution shifts in the next five to ten years. For example, if

Table 2 Comparison of Actual Canadian Employment Distribution with Students' Career Aspirations

	Job Distribution				
Sector	**Canada Total %***	**Canada Male %***	**Student Male %****	**Canada Female %***	**Student Female %****
Managerial	10	14	4	10	1
Sciences	11	8	20	10	35
Social science and teaching	9	4	7	9	25
Arts	2	2	17	2	12
Services	57	26	23	58	22
Trades and labour	11	46	29	11	5

Key: Table compares the actual Canadian employment distribution with the career aspirations of a sample of high-school students.

* The sample from Census 1991 data used in the analysis was in excess of 600,00.

** Male $N = 190$; female $N = 139$ listed career choices most people in sciences were nearing retirement, then jobs should be opening up; or if sciences had expanded during the last 15–20 years there should be more employees between 25 and 35 years old. Similarly, if blue-collar work has been shrinking, there should be fewer young people in that sector. Using this reasoning to apply results of these analyses allows the following profiles of each job sector to be drawn.

Management sector

The management sector includes all occupational areas, some of which recruit people with business/commerce credentials, whereas others train and promote internally. In either case, some particular high-school subjects such as calculus may be required. Most managers are male, over 35, and have a bachelor's degree or better. However, women are well represented (10% of all females work as managers, with no gender difference for managers under 35, although many women probably work in gender-stereotypical areas of the services sector). Of all employed people over 55 years, 16% of the men and 9% of the women work as managers. Positions therefore should be opening up, thus generating interest in training young managers in many areas.

Sciences

Sciences includes physical, biological, health, veterinary, and math-related occupations other than teaching or management positions, but account for only 11% of all employment, making it hard to see why it has been the focus of so much attention. It offers little employment for people with less than a community-college diploma, but over 20% of females with that credential, and 10% of males, are employed here. Against stereotypical expectations, more women than men are employed in sciences (mainly in health areas). However, deep cuts to funding for health care and nonprofit science research, coupled with decreased demand for resource and processing engineers, herald shrinkage—not growth—in science employment. Electronic and computer areas are unlikely to compensate for all these losses. Furthermore, the age distribution in the sector does not suggest massive imminent retirement. Most employees are under 55 and divided evenly among age groups. The 10% of "baby boomer" employees are 15–20 years from retirement, and often women, who tend to enter/re-enter, and leave the work force later then men.

Social sciences and teaching sector

The social sciences and teaching sector is definitely for the highly educated: of men with a graduate degree, 32% are employed here, and 46% of the women. Very few have less than a bachelor's degree. Most employees (especially males) are over 35 years old, and overall more than 5% of all people over 55 are employed here, with many more between 36 and 55 years. Unless there are major and permanent job reductions, positions should increasingly open up over the next two decades. However, there is currently a glut of qualified young teachers and social-science graduates, who will likely fill these positions ahead of students now in school.

Arts

Those involved in the arts, which include writers, painters and most entertainers, account for only 2% of jobs, with no gender difference. Only university education slightly increases the likelihood of employment here. Students must be made aware little employment actually exists in the arts, even at the low-pay, non-stardom end!

Trades and labour

Trades and labour covers many blue-collar positions (construction, transportion, maintenance, processing, and trades). These traditional working-class jobs are supposedly disappearing, but in 1991 they accounted for 11% of all employment, and 46% of male employment. This drops to 39% for males under 20 and may represent recent shrinkage in the area; but even if this continues, many of these jobs remain essential and are likely to continue providing a substantial amount of employment, especially for those without university education, as over 50% of male community-college graduates work in this sector. Young women with little education (especially those over 30) are much more likely than their educated counterparts to work in the sector (22% of females without high-school diplomas, but under 4% of those with university degrees). Although some of these jobs are poorly paid, others are very lucrative, and neglected by women.

Services sector

The services sector represents almost 60% of all employment and far more than the minimum wage jobs often associated with it. It includes many administrative positions; most jobs in the information, tourist, and real-estate industries; software and hardware sales and service; and many community and social-work jobs. Furthermore, services of all kinds generate many management positions. Thus, the sector provides jobs at every point on the salary scale. The younger a person, the greater likelihood of employment in this sector (55% of all males, and 83% of females, under 20). After age 25, male-services employment drops to around 24%, but well above 50% of female employment at all ages occurs in this sector. The inflation in the 16–19 group is likely due mainly to students working part-time, as the majority of young people do complete high school. Similarly, students between 20 and 25 often work part-time in this sector, but are unlikely to account for the entire age differential, which may well indicate increased service-sector jobs for young people, with the less educated likely holding low-wage positions. However, the sector also employs over 20% of men and 32% of women with a bachelor's degree, and 8% and 12% respectively with a graduate degree. The figures suggest it is essential we all adjust our perceptions about jobs in this largest and only significantly expanding employment sector, if students are to make realistic career plans.

When actual Canadian employment distribution is compared with the student aspirations, some interesting differences are revealed, with girls' aspirations appearing particularly unrealistic. Far more students than are likely to find work in the science sector aspired to science jobs, but few of those ambitions were for work with computers and electronics—the only science growth areas of any note. Too many girls aspired to teaching and social-science positions, and too few expected to find themselves in service or trades and labour jobs. Consequently, they will end up mainly in the unskilled and low-paying ends of these sectors, due to impractical career planning. Unrealistic hopes for arts and entertainment employment, and failure to see management as a career pathway, are other notable features of student aspiration patterns. Clearly, at the point these students began making educational decisions that effect their future career options, they lacked a realistic view of the work world—present or future.

Current employment distribution offers little evidence that massive changes are about to occur. Some sectors will have jobs opening up due to retirements over the next two decades, but at the same time, most sectors are shrinking due to permanent job attrition. I suggest that it is not really the range or basic types of jobs that are changing drastically, but rather the number of available jobs, the kind of task, and/or the method of performing those tasks that have changed, and continue to change. Electronic technology creates some new well-paying jobs in specialist areas, but redefines or eliminates even more. All students will require at least rudimentary electronic and computer-technology skills and numeric and language literacy, no matter what career they desire. Woe to social science aspirants who thinks they can quit math after Grade 10, or to computer whizzes who never expect to need language and social skills!

This leaves one final, important question: *Are the beliefs, expectations, and counselling approaches we currently hold, in line with the reality that students face?* Given our imperfect comprehension of the uncertain world of future work, the previous emphasis on specialization—particularly in traditional sciences—seems misplaced. It seems more prudent to encourage the acquisition of skills in a variety of discipline areas, thus providing a good foundation for adaptability and lifelong learning. Further, students who want to advance above the bottom level of the income structure need carefully chosen postsecondary education. Community-college diplomas are often effective credentials, but too often students strive for a bachelor's degree they don't really have the academic skills to attain, and has little employment relevance.

The economic and social climate in which today's youth face school-to-work-transitions looks grim. Although postsecondary education appears more essential than ever, if it becomes as expensive as many predict, children from affluent families will have an enormous job-competition advantage over their less fortunate peers. We need to do everything we can to help all students make sound choices, but are we doing this? Although many of the students I interviewed were poorly informed, they were not unthinking. Some were astutely critical of the pressure they felt to pursue MST courses, at the expense of others arguing that non-science jobs will still exist, language and social skills are necessary for all jobs, and it is important to aim for work that is personally interesting. Yet, we seldom really listen to their views, and often fail to appreciate that we are their "real life" experts. They rely on us for the information they require; it is imperative that we live up to their trust.

Unfortunately, we need better information ourselves, and the knowledge we do have is given little place within the school program. Worse yet, career information currently disseminated in high schools (Human Resources Development Canada 1994) reflects out-of-date and stereotypical notions about career planning. It encourages students to slot themselves into only two preferred skills/personality domains, using outdated measurement categories that have long been criticized for ambiguity and gender and ethnic bias. (Dippo 1994) These categories do not accommodate jobs in computer-information and support-services industries, and actively discourage the development of flexible cross-domain skills by polarizing attributes into old-fashioned and socially biased groups.

Conclusion

I have argued that current perspectives on school-to-work-transitions and future labour-market trends are often outdated, fragmented, and vague. Students require realistic goals for which to aim; and for that, they need accurate and related information that breaks away from stereotypical perceptions. Improving students' knowledge about the relationships between course selections and career possibilities would seem imperative, but in order to address these needs, we require better information ourselves, and we must insist on getting it. Meanwhile, early specialization should be discouraged in favour of a balanced high-school background to maximize whatever future opportunities there turn out to be. Looking with a critical eye at what we know and don't know, and helping students to do the same, is a step toward gaining and creating better information. The aim of this paper is to provoke critical reflection by troubling some of the assumptions I held myself—until my own research led me to question them.

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Using storytelling in career counselling

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"Give people a fact or an idea and you enlighten their minds; tell them a story and you touch their souls."
Hasidic poem[1]

Storytelling can be an important tool for career counsellors in helping clients to understand themselves and thereby begin helping them to develop meaningful career plans. The use of storytelling is consistent with the establishment of a collaboration between client and counsellor, and with career-development theories such as the use of narratives to develop life themes.

Traditionally, counsellors have been in control of the career counselling process, with the client following counsellor directions. Today's economic environment requires us to be in control of our work lives, and the counselling relationship must reflect that through a collaborative process, which enables clients to work in partnership with counsellors. (Healy 1990) When counsellors encourage, listen to, and ask questions about clients' stories, they are validating that process.

Clients' stories of their childhood provide clues to patterns, attitudes, and beliefs that structure their life stories, often revealing problems that cause clients to feel negative and positive perceptions that are seen as solutions. (Savickas 1995) The heroes and heroines in clients' stories often serve as role models that symbolize solutions, while the villains represent real or imagined problems. Every culture has stories and myths that define it, and ultimately the people in it. All of us are made up of the people in our lives and their stories. (Keen and Valley-Fox 1989)

Amundson (1996) refers to "reframing" as helping clients to change their perspectives. Exploring clients' metaphors and stimulating the development of new ones are reframing actions that can lead to greater self-understanding. In telling stories that describe their experiences, the process of creating them also creates the memory structure that will contain the essential parts of the stories—by speaking them they are remembered. (Schank 1990)

Metaphors are important because when comparing oneself and one's situation to other realities, it often helps clarify the situation. For example, the various protagonists of a story can represent the conflicts within an individual, such as the kind and selfish characters in a story who are different moods of the same person. (Bettelheim 1976) Metaphors are figures of speech—objects that represent deeper truths (my love is a red, red rose)—and are meant to be read on many levels. Metaphors are useful in conceptualizing and communicating because they can change complex information. The use of metaphors shifts discussions to exchanges of stories. (Amundson 1988)

Telling a story can help to create or implement a new dream. Today, when many of our clients are faced with "a lost dream" or "non-event," framing it in a story enables us to look closely at the dream we expected, examine our reactions when the dream wasn't realized, acknowledge how that changed our lives, and "then begin to imagine future scenarios." (Schlossberg and Robinson 1996, p. 148)

Using storytelling in career counselling requires us to use our "third ear." In Africa, when a storyteller is asked for a story, the response is, "How many ears do you have?" When the answer is "two," the storyteller says, "Take out your third ear and I will tell you a story."

Speaking at a conference in Toronto in 1985, psychologist Rollo May referred to this concept when he said that the role of counsellors is to hear their clients' stories so that the clients might hear them again in new and fresh ways, which can only occur when the listener/counsellor is aware of his/her own inner story with all its joys and sorrows.

The ancient storytellers were the counsellors, priests, and healers of their communities. They knew the power of healing through metaphors. *Cinderella* is a story that we all know, but we may not be aware of the powerful metaphors that it contains. There are over 700 versions of *Cinderella;* the first one recorded in A.D. 500 in China. The story always concerns a young girl who is abused by a stepmother and/or stepsisters who build themselves up at the girl's expense. She must toil in the kitchen, light and tend the fires, carry the water, and scrub the floors. Her personal support comes from nature: a frog in the African version, a snake in the Indian, a red calf in the Scottish, a fairy godmother, birds and mice in the French. In the German version, the hazel tree that grows over her mother's grave produces two birds that assist her in her household tasks and in her desire to go to the prince's feast like the other girls.

The metaphors of the tree, the stepmother, the birds, lentils, dress and shoes, feast, and pear tree all have meaning for people's lives. Each of us possesses these metaphors as energy or parts of our personalities. For example, the energy of Cinderella who sits in the ashes is the soul that is ignored or disowned in the attempts to fit into the values and expectations of family/community/work place. The stepmothers and stepsisters represent the greed and ambition that drive people to seek approval and recognition from society at great cost to personal happiness. The hazel tree and the birds represent helpful instincts that aid people if they learn to listen to them.

An illustration of applying these metaphors occurred in a workshop conducted by Helen Porter. She told the participants the Grimms' *Cinderella* and asked for the participants' interpretations. None of them thought that the story had anything to say to them as adults, but all complained about their bosses, husbands, and children who didn't appreciate, listen to them, or see them as individuals. They spoke of feeling like drudges at work but couldn't see how they could change their situations and had no career aspirations. Helen challenged them to look at the stepmother as a metaphor for their energy.

> *What kind of voices do you hear on a workday morning when you look into the closet to choose the clothes you are going to wear—you're too fat, that colour makes you look sick, your hair is a mess? What voices do you hear at work—you're too slow, you can't do anything right?*

They were surprised to hear themselves calling out with their inner voices, realizing that they were paralysed by them in the same way that Cinderella was paralysed by her stepmother's negative power. They were both surprised that everyone had stepmother and stepsister voices within them.

When they worked on the positive metaphors in the story—the two birds who lived in the hazel tree under which Cinderella's real mother was buried along with the king's son—they asked themselves where they found happiness and inner strength. As they talked about their sources of restoration, they began to identify their Cinderella. How could they use their rejuvenating energy in dealing with work and family problems? How could they change their situations as Cinderella had?

They spoke of their "bird" energy and power that they had repressed, and named dreams that they had been afraid to consider in developing their careers and personal lives. They understood that the three times Cinderella left the ball represents the amount of effort it takes to actualize their dreams.

The Kindly Ghost, which comes from the Sudan, tells the story of a male variant of Cinderella (Shah 1979). Three brothers are walking through the desert searching for water. They rest under a tree and fall asleep, but the two older brothers wake up before the youngest, so they leave him to find water for themselves. When Ahmed, the youngest, wakes up, he is frightened and calls for his brothers. When they don't answer he realizes he is alone and night is coming. Wild animals call out around him. He discovers a hollow in a tree where he sleeps safely. In the morning, he finds a bow, arrows, and a hatchet in the hollow. A fruit falls from the tree and splits open. Inside is as much water as he needs. He goes hunting and finds food. He makes a snare, and one day he captures a small desert rat. The rat begs Ahmed to spare him and promises that if he does, one day he will save Ahmed's life, so Ahmed sets him free. The next day, a falcon is caught in the snare, asks to be spared and is also set free. That night Ahmed dreams that a little gray man appears and gives him a magic pouch that will make all his wishes come true. He has to be careful that he doesn't make any evil wishes because they would come true also. In the morning, Ahmed makes a wish to be with people in a place where there is water, and instantly finds himself in a village full of busy, happy people, next to a river. He discovers that it all belongs to him. He finds a beautiful wife and a lovely house. After some time, his brothers come back and pretend that they have been searching for him. Ahmed is generous and trusting and gives them lovely homes, but they are not content and spend all their time grumbling that Ahmed has all the power. They ask Ahmed where he got his power so he shows them the magic pouch. The eldest brother snatches it and wishes for Ahmed to disappear. Instantly, Ahmed finds himself sitting in the desert. He sits there for a long time wondering how he will survive, when a little gray rat runs toward him and asks what is wrong. After Ahmed tell him, he says, "You were too trusting and generous. Most people do not remember to say thanks for the help given to them. I will bring your pouch back to you." Assisted by the falcon he rescues the pouch from the brothers who were fighting each other for it. Ahmed is finally freed of his brothers at the end of the story.

The metaphors of the tree, desert rat, falcon, bow and arrow, hatchet, gray ghost, and evil brothers represent parts of ourselves that we need to know in order to free our imaginations and actions in our personal and work worlds.

- Who represents the brothers' energy and is blocking or poisoning your natural energy?
- What are the messages you hear on a regular basis from those parts of yourself?
- Who are the falcon and desert rat in your life? How do you connect with them?
- What is your magic pouch? Your gray ghost?
- Where do you derive your greatest happiness and freedom?
- What parts of yourself are rat-like and hawk-like?
- How do you know and communicate that energy to yourself?
- Who is your gray ghost? What does he look like? What does he offer you?

Both of these stories are representative of tales and myths that can help clients examine their own system of "complementary and contradictory personal myths that organize their sense of reality and guide their actions." (Feinstein and Krippner 1988, p. 24) Personal myths are in conflict when beliefs don't match behaviour. In creating and telling their stories, clients can be helped to recognize when their "guiding myths" do not function as their allies, and the metaphors in their myths are more harmful to them than helpful.

Cinderella and *The Kindly Ghost* are examples of fairy tales, myths, and legends that are universal in scope and appeal, address basic human issues, and reflect universal human values and issues. The healing power of these stories has been appreciated for centuries and their therapeutic use is well established. In many traditional cultures, telling tales is a critical part of healing rites because they offer hope, wisdom, and practical advice for human conflicts and doubts. (Chinen 1993)

Endnotes

1 Chinen 1993, p.2

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